# How Senior Police Leaders Learn the Art of Leadership

Shane Doyle MMgt (QUT), GradCert AppMgt (AIPM), BBus (QUT)

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Business and Law, Central Queensland University

30th November, 2018

## Summary

Despite the intense scholarly focus on leadership development in corporate settings, the importance of developing good leaders in police organisations has received scant attention. The dearth of scholarship on police leadership means that the distinctive demands of policing are often overlooked in addressing the question of unique leadership requirements. This gap also suggests that we do not yet understand how the characteristics of policing drive a need for tailored approaches to developing police leaders.

This research addressed this gap in the literature by initially exploring how senior officers learn the art of leadership within an Australian policing context through interviews with jurisdictional experts (Study 1). The focus of this research then centred on commissioned officers within the Queensland Police Service (QPS) through a survey questionnaire (Study 2) and stakeholder interviews (Study 3). Drawing upon the literature and theoretical frameworks of leader development models, this investigation explored what development methods best advanced officers' leadership together with other factors that facilitated or constrained their development. The research then centred on the extent to which recognised factors—such as the unique *challenges* of policing, the existence of *feedback* and the extent of *support*—lead to the enhancement of senior police leaders.

Study 1 explored policy frameworks across eight (8) Australian police agencies that revealed each jurisdiction applied a unique approach to leader development, reflecting the parochial and independent way each agency administered its policing functions. In study 2 the survey questionnaire yielded a 61percent response rate comprising officers who were predominately male, highly educated and mature (in age and service). Inherent cultural and organisational characteristics encouraged officers to adopt a "cradle to the grave" approach to their policing careers. In the final study, interviews with twenty (20) QPS commissioned officers revealed participants comprised a small cohort of *survivors* who had successfully navigated the politically charged police environment. This study highlighted officers' journeys in acquiring their leadership was underscored by being contextually grounded within the difficult and challenging organisational milieu of policing.

In addressing the research questions, the three studies, when analysed, broadly supported the 70:20:10 learning model which theorises leadership is primarily acquired by job experiences (70%) and to a lesser extent through relationships (20%) and via formal or structured learning (10%). This model did not present as a measured outcome which arose from allocating resources or priorities according to a clearly defined 70:20:10 outcome 'rule'. Instead, the (approximate) 70:20:10 distribution of leadership learning was almost certainly the outcome of an interaction between the structure of the police leadership environment and the reality of the field. This research found *on the job* work was their primary "classroom" for learning leadership, with the majority of learning acquired through informal means (i.e. job experiences and relationships). However, the three components of the 70:20:10 process needed to be better articulated, planned and seamlessly integrated. In particular, more tangible and coherent links need to be developed between formal learning and informal learning and greater acknowledgement that informal learning requires the same levels of support and feedback to that supplied for formal learning.

The research found superiors played a pivotal role in the leadership development process; either as facilitating or hindering an officers' leadership. The findings revealed that many superiors were found wanting as role models with officers' learning more about what leadership behaviours to avoid replicating; by observing the key characteristics of superiors who were bad role models (i.e. reverse role-modelling). Diverse cultural factors were found to hinder officers from advancing their leadership including the rank orientated and risk adverse culture and the powerful tradition of favouring management over leadership. Various macro-organisational characteristics also stymied officers' development including the failure to integrate leadership development into the organisations' infrastructure, evidenced by policies and frameworks that lacked strategic maturity and intent.

The findings also broadly support the two-part leadership development model promoted by McCauley et al. (2010a). Within the fertile contextual milieu of policing, officers' key

characteristics were highlighted in the first component of the model. Commissioned officers were a highly homogenous group that were *winners* who had flourished within the unique developmental system and distinctive police culture. Their characteristics were critical in scaling the rungs of the highly competitive and occasionally brutal leadership ladder, including possessing warrior like skills that reflected the deeply entrenched macho police culture. The research also lent support to the second part of the model comprising vital elements of challenge, support (coupled with feedback), together with the pivotal elements of (i) leadership context with (ii) varied developmental experiences, moulded by challenge, feedback and support. The research highlighted that the quality and extent of support and feedback provided by superiors, coupled with their key characteristics proved instrumental in officers' developing as leaders.

Arguably more strategic roles played by senior leaders are part science and part art, however, the findings suggest there is relatively little "science", (formal learning) and a great deal of art (on-the-job training). Officers were thrown into significant, ill-controlled and unpredictable challenges, often with a considerable lack of training and resources, and it was the on-the-job challenges that ultimately defined them as leaders. Another key issue that emerged was that officers were not being "developed" by the police service but had rather survived the difficulties thrown up by their work. This meant the nature of police "leadership development" resulted in *survivors* becoming leaders and the ad hoc system of police development may have inadvertently "weeded out" talented individuals. Superiors' permeated this process by possessing a hopeful but ultimately naïve assumption that informal learning occurred naturally and by merely adopting a "set and forgot" approach would eventually culminate in officers' automatically acquiring leadership capability. Such an approach reflects a "cream rises to the top" philosophy of leader development involving the misconception that the best talent will emerge regardless of the quality of developmental experiences provided.

Finally, this program of research highlighted a conflict between how headquarters would like to see policing and police leadership training, and the reality of how officers acquired their leadership primarily in the field. At a senior level, police may well imagine or *wish* that the process was more

structured and orderly, and governments *require* the process to be documented and predictable, but out in the field a battle is ongoing, despite the wishes of leadership. So there is a tension, or juxtaposition between a desire for order, and a reality of chaos in the police workplace which has implications for how leaders are developed.

## Declaration of Authorship and Originality

I, the undersigned author, declare that all of the research and discussion presented in this thesis is original work performed by the author. No content of this thesis has been submitted or considered either in whole or in part, at any tertiary institute or university for a degree or any other category of award. I also declare that any material presented in this thesis performed by another person or institute has been referenced and listed in the reference section.

*Copyright statement*



*Acknowledgment of professional services*

Professional editors provided proof-reading services, according to the guidelines laid out in the University-endorsed national guidelines, 'The editing of research theses by professional editors'.

Signature Redacted

30/11/2018

Shane T Doyle

# Table of Contents

## List of Tables

## List of Figures

## List of Abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| AFP | Australian Federal Police |
| AIPM | Australian Institute of Police Management |
| ANZPLS | Australian and New Zealand Police Leadership Strategy |
| ANZPAA | Australia New Zealand Policing Advisory Agency |
| CDP | Constables Development Program |
| CQU | Central Queensland University |
| CO | Commissioned Officer |
| EB | Enterprise Bargaining |
| LDU | Leadership Development Unit |
| MDP | Management Development Program |
| MoU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| NCO | Non-Commissioned Officer |
| NSWPF | New South Wales Police Force |
| NTPOL | Northern Territory Police |
| QPS | Queensland Police Service |
| QPCOUE | Queensland Police Commissioned Officers' Union of Employees |
| SAPOL | South Australia Police |
| TASPOL | Tasmania Police |
| VICPOL | Victoria Police |
| WAPOL | Western Australia Police Force |

## Acknowledgements

After five years my thesis is done and dusted! And there are many people I need to acknowledge for getting me here.

First, I would like to thank members of the Executive Queensland Police Commissioned Officers' Union of Employees (QPCOUE) who supported this research, in many material and other ways, in particular Brian Wilkins, Dan Bragg and Stacey Pitman. Thanks are also extended to many QPCOUE members who readily participated in this research by completing surveys and participating in interviews.

I also acknowledge the supreme efforts of my wonderful supervisory team, all of whom are accomplished academics and grounded practitioners. Considering my history as a police officer, this combination made for a perfect match. I believe the key ingredient in successfully completing a PhD is having a great supervisory team and I felt blessed and fortunate to have one of those.

First, I want to acknowledge my principal supervisor Associate Professor Olav Muurlink. Olav saw in me what others had not and trusted his instincts by taking me on as a doctoral candidate, for which I will be forever grateful. I hope the journey for him has been just as rewarding as it has been for me. I thank Olav for his unwavering support, constant positivity, endless patience, tireless enthusiasm, bucket loads of empathy and sheer brilliance – to see me through to completion. I consider Olav a trusted friend and without doubt I would never have completed this thesis without him.

My sincere thanks also go to my other supervisors – Associate Professor Linda Colley and Dr Shellee Franssen (nee Wakefield). Linda not only provided me with friendship, sage advice and wise counsel, she also challenged me when I needed it. The yin and yang between Linda and Olav proved a great combination. I would like to also acknowledge Shellee for her on-going friendship and support and for just being there when I needed

someone to listen. Without Shellee's intervention, I would not have met Olav – which proved to be a masterstroke.

This thesis would not have been achieved without the unwavering support and love from my wife Helen. Countless hours spent labouring on a computer was always greeted with great patience, understanding and acceptance. Helen never questioned my vision or attempted to blunt my passion and I genuinely thank her for allowing me the freedom to pursue my academic endeavours. I also acknowledge my daughter Konstantina for being a true inspiration by possessing incredible academic discipline, which leaves me truly in awe.

Finally, I would like to express my sincere thanks to my sister Sharyn Thorley. Sharyn has always supported my academic pursuits and strongly values education as a liberating endeavour. The countless hours Sharyn volunteered to reference and read numerous drafts was incredible. Her dedication, enthusiasm and sheer willpower to see me through to completion cannot be understated. For this reason I would like to dedicate this thesis to Sharyn.

***Acknowledgement of support provided by the Australian Government***

This RHD candidature was supported under the Commonwealth Government's Research Training Program/Research Training Scheme. I gratefully acknowledge the financial support provided by the Australian Government.

# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

When police leadership fails, there are major consequences for governments and citizens, that tend to spill over into the public domain, including the media (Leishman & Mason, 2012). The community needs to have confidence that police will serve them and keep them safe, and in this context developing a cadre of good leaders is pivotal in maintaining that confidence. A key question is whether developing leadership in a policing context is more 'art' than 'science'. In terms of developing good police leadership, the broad aim of this thesis was to test how this distinction is perceived by leaders, by determining the extent to which leadership is seen as being acquired in the unstructured and unpredictable 'field' (art) as opposed to a formal more or less 'science'-based setting of the classroom or training course. Recourse to the literature revealed that an intense scholarly focus on leadership has been accompanied by a substantial increase in the theoretical and empirical research on leadership development, particularly in corporate and military environments (Schafer, 2008, 2010a). However, the important role of leadership and leadership development in the unique policing context has received relatively limited scholarly attention (Bragg, 2013; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a).

There is no consensus in the literature on whether contextual nuances associated with policing necessitate a unique or distinctive leadership style. In addition, discourse continues on whether tailored approaches are required to develop police leaders. For instance, researchers Adlam (2000), Campbell and Kodz (2011), Densten (1999) and Schafer (2009) contend that distinct contextual characteristics associated with policing command a unique style of leadership. However, Blair (2003) questioned whether police leadership is truly different to approaches used in non-police organisational contexts. In general, the literature

on police leadership and ways to ‘grow’ leaders is restricted in scope and fails to adequately address many theoretical and empirical questions concerning police leadership development. Despite the paucity of empirical evidence on how police leaders learn leadership, a rich vein of research exists from other professions which arguably can be applied to guide the creation of police leader development interventions (see Day & Zaccaro, 2004; McCauley, Van Velsor, & Ruderman, 2010; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004; Zaccaro, Wood, & Herman, 2006). However, further theoretically-based research within the context of policing, not merely generalised from leadership studies within corporate-style environments, is required to understand police leadership development more deeply, and illuminate the developmental experiences that enhance police leadership.

A handful of empirical studies exist on leadership development focussing on police agencies in the United States of America (USA) and the United Kingdom (UK) (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). Despite similarities in how police organisations operate in western democratic countries, no published research exists on how police officers develop as leaders within an Australian policing context. This research addresses this gap in the literature by exploring how senior leaders learn leadership within an Australian police environment, with a focus on commissioned officers within the Queensland Police Service (QPS). It investigates leadership development methods and other factors likely to impact how senior police develop their leadership. The research also explores the extent to which identified factors—such as the unique *challenges* of policing, the presence of *feedback* and the degree of *support*—lead to the enhancement of leadership within senior QPS officers.

### 1.1.1 Research Approach

In addressing the research questions, a mixed methods approach (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) was applied comprising three studies. The research involved combining an analysis of survey data and secondary data from qualitative semi-structured interviews conducted with senior police officers and content matter experts. The aim of a mixed methods approach is to move away from the antagonistic relationship between the quantitative and qualitative approaches, and instead to draw from the strengths of both approaches in answering recalcitrant research questions.

The first study aimed to understand methods, policies and practices associated with leadership development in Australia.. Data was derived from semi-structured interviews with eight policy experts representing each police jurisdiction in Australian, together with an expert representing the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM). This was supplemented by an analysis of secondary sources, resulting in a comprehensive picture of the Australian police leadership development context, in which the Queensland component at the focus of this study is placed. The second study canvassed the broad voice of commissioned officers from the QPS, the population at the core of this thesis. Data was obtained using a survey questionnaire (n = 183) which captured the perceptions of commissioned officers concerning various aspects of their training and development as senior leaders. The study had a very high response rate (61%) and thus can be seen to offer a valid representation of current views. The third study focussed on a more in-depth examination of leadership development including factors which facilitated and hindered the advancement of commissioned officers in the QPS. This data was obtained by undertaking 20 semi-structured interviews with serving commissioned officers. The third study also investigated the degree to which challenge, feedback and support impacted on their development as senior leaders in the QPS. Sampling and a very high response rate ensured that this third study also

represented the views of the QPS leadership population. Drawing on the rich data from these three studies, the research enabled a detailed exploration of perceptions of leadership development in policing, and whether developing good police leaders is indeed more art than science. In addition, this thesis identified which methods best develop police leaders and established the extent to which challenge, feedback and support underpinned the process.

The researcher was previously a commissioned officer in the QPS and prior to that, an executive member of the Queensland Police Commissioned Officers' Union of Employees (QPCOUE). The existing trusted relationship with the QPCOUE helped facilitate ready access to police unions in other jurisdictions (Study 1), together with a high degree of access to QPCOUE members and union records (Study 2 & 3). The level of support and access permitted by the QPCOUE is considered rare and privileged, as no known precedent existed for this type of research in the union's 90-year history. The strong relationship between researcher and union enabled a thorough interrogation of data, which benefited the quality of the research and enabled the presentation of unique insights to the guarded world of commissioned officers.

To summarise, the first study adopted a broad approach and examined professional and leadership development of commissioned officers within police jurisdictions throughout Australia, together with the AIPM. The two subsequent studies narrowed the focus to the QPS and targeted commissioned officers as sworn senior leaders, which is consistent with Hahn Fox and Jennings (2014, p. 139), who suggested a methodological approach comprising four key components: (i) data collection procedures; (ii) design of the study; (iii) selection of participants; and finally (iv) a planned data analysis approach. All data sources derived from the three studies were compared and analysed to achieve the best results from a mixed methodology approach. By combining the analysis of survey data with the secondary data

derived from the semi-structured interviews, the subsequent analysis informed the aims and questions associated with this research.

### 1.1.2 Background to the Research

The extent of published works in leadership and leadership development together with the complexity of the research topic necessitated that the literature review is presented over two chapters (Chapters 2 and 3). Chapter 2 presents the review of literature on leadership and leadership development in corporate and public-sector environments. This review reveals a strong scholarly focus on leadership within recent decades, accompanied by a significant increase in the theoretical and empirical examination into leadership development. Chapter 3 concentrates on the extant literature involving leadership and leadership development in policing. The ensuing sections will provide an overview of the police context, leadership and leadership development in policing and conclude with a synopsis of leadership development within QPS.

### 1.1.3 Overview of the Policing Context

Scholarly discourse has emphasised the growing complexity of police work (Ariel et al., 2016; Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Kelling, 1999; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; White & Robinson, 2014) together with the requirement to operate in rapidly changing environments (Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; White & Robinson, 2014). Policing has been popularly described as an 'art' as opposed to a science (see Baker, 2008; Chan, Devery, & Doran, 2003; Tong & Bowling, 2006) and a trade or craft as opposed to a profession (see Bumgarner, 2002; Cox, 2011). Conversely, it has been argued that more strategic roles performed by executive level police leaders is part science and part art (see Baker, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017). The literature review also revealed how the police role is changing (Clamp & Paterson, 2016; Cox, Marchionna, & Fitch, 2015; Scaramella, Cox, &

McCamey, 2010) and therefore, police leaders need to be equipped with the necessary skills and experience to address the significant demands associated with this broader and increasingly complex role (White & Robinson, 2014). Within policing, context needs to be considered when examining leadership (Drodge & Murphy, 2002; Murphy & Drodge, 2004), as the context of policing presents unique challenges for its leaders. For example, constraints and obstacles are imposed upon police leaders' capacity by the hierarchically-organised and highly bureaucratic structures which characterise policing (Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996).

### 1.1.4 Introduction to Leadership in Policing

The influence of popular television shows and podcasts which focus on gruesome and complex murder cases may give the public a distorted picture of police leaders' role in performing every day policing duties. . In reality, the role of a police leader is far removed from this popular image. Therefore, to provide clarity, the unique complexities and challenges confronting contemporary police leaders will be initially overviewed.

Police leadership is balanced between the "real world", unpredictable, uncontrollable world of crime and the highly structured and predictable frameworks of internal police bureaucracy. The literature stresses the importance of good leadership in policing (see Densten, 1999; Densten, 2003; Meaklim & Sims, 2011) in terms of effectively dealing with complex challenges confronting contemporary police organisations (Silvestri, 2007) and raising standards of integrity (Mastrofski & Willis, 2010). The role of leaders in police organisations is both complex and challenging (White & Robinson, 2014). The organisational context of police organisations differs markedly from other organisational contexts, and this subsequently impacts the role of its leaders (Densten, 1999; Schafer, 2009). Leadership in policing is a "socially constructed phenomenon occurring within a contextual milieu"

(Murphy, 2008, p. 165). In contrast to other organisational environments, a police leader's ability to effectively lead and supervise is complicated by the dispersed work environment in which frontline officers operate and is compounded by the unique nature of work these officers perform (Schafer, 2009).

Good leadership needs to be exercised at all levels within police organisations and not merely limited to the exclusive cadre of senior or executive ranks (Drodge & Murphy, 2002; Mitchell, 2009; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Vito & Higgins, 2010). The negative aspects of leadership in policing have also been alluded to in the literature (see Densten, 1999; Muller, Maclean, & Biggs, 2009; Schafer, 2010b) including references to poor or ineffective police leaders (see Bryman et al., 1996; Schafer, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). There have been calls for police organisations to enhance the quality of their leadership (see Adlam, 2003a), particularly as traditional models of leadership are increasingly seen as ineffective in managing the complex and often conflicting demands within contemporary police agencies (Adlam, 2003b; Caless, 2011). In terms of effectively implementing change, police organisations require police managers to engage in more participatory styles of leadership (Marks & Fleming, 2004; Silvestri, 2007). Despite its acknowledged importance, police leadership has received scant scholarly attention (Murphy, 2008; Schafer, 2010a; Yang, Yen, & Chiang, 2012), including a paucity of research examining the quality of leadership at senior levels (Dantzker, 1996). As a prelude to the literature review (Chapters 2 and 3) and to provide some initial context, leadership development within corporate environments will be overviewed together with a summary of leadership development in policing.

### 1.1.5 Overview of the Literature Review

A review of the literature in Chapter 2 stresses the significance of context in leadership development in corporate style environments (see Bryman, 1999; Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White, & Schedlitzki, 2013; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kets de Vries & Korotov, 2010). The importance of context has subsequently been reflected in models or frameworks associated with leadership development. For example, McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) emphasise that the leader development process is underpinned by context: there is no superior way to lead or to enhance leaders as this is contingent upon the context in which the leader is operating. The model espoused by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) also highlights the critical need to match the leader development approach with the leadership context. The McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) model was subsequently applied to guide this research, owing to the unique nature of policing coupled with the acknowledged critical importance of considering context when developing leaders.

The literature review in Chapter 3 highlights the importance of police learning leadership through 'on-the-job' experiences together with formal training and mentorship (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a). The critical importance of enhancing leadership development for police officers has been emphasised (see Moriarty, 2009), however, the area of police leadership development has received very limited and fragmented theoretical attention (Neyroud, 2010). Notably, a handful of literature reviews completed in the area of police leadership development found no empirically-based evidence illuminating the relative importance of different leadership developmental approaches employed in policing (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013)

The concentration of scholarly attention to the role played by police leaders tends to focus on front-line officers at supervisory levels. In contrast, the critical role performed by senior

police officers has been limited to a handful of studies (Densten, 2003). This literary focus is most likely swayed by the exciting cut and thrust world of a front-line supervisor compared to the bureaucratic corporate work of a police executive. Despite the acknowledged importance of developing the leadership of police officers, no universally agreed method or approach exists to achieve this critical goal. A review of literature on leadership development in corporate and business environments reveals a plethora of models, theories and approaches aimed at enhancing leadership. Despite the agreed importance of good leadership in policing, there is a paucity of research which sheds light on how police officers become effective police leaders (Bragg, 2013; Miller et al., 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a), particularly at senior levels. Therefore, this study aims to make a significant contribution to the literature by identifying methods and other factors that enhance officer development, together with the extent to which feedback, challenge and support facilitate the leadership of senior QPS leaders. This research comprised a two-phased approach which will be briefly described below.

### 1.1.6 First Phase: Overview of Leadership Development in Australia

No published research was found that focussed on how leaders are developed within an Australian policing context. However, a review of the extant literature revealed that police leader development practices undertaken in western democracies, have been influenced by military and corporate approaches (see Cowper, 2000; Miller et al., 2009; Schafer, 2009). The first phase of this research subsequently comprised interviews with jurisdictional experts which provided an overview of how each police agency in Australia developed their commissioned officers, together with developmental offerings provided by the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM). Data derived from this first phase of the research (Study 1: Chapter 5) revealed a lack of consistency in leadership development methods, approaches and models applied by Australian police agencies. In essence, the analysis

presented a fragmented picture of leadership development, reflecting a non-standardised approach where each police agency adopted a unique and tailored process to develop commissioned officers as senior police leaders.

### 1.1.7 Second Phase: How QPS Commissioned Officers Developed Their Leadership

This research was undertaken within the QPS against a backdrop of immense organisational change. In 2013, the QPS (2013) initiated and implemented wide sweeping structural and organisational reforms, swiftly followed by further major structural reforms emanating from the Keelty Review (Keelty, 2013). Both reform measures arguably culminated in the most substantial organisational reform agenda undertaken in nearly a quarter of a century, since the watershed Fitzgerald Inquiry Report (Fitzgerald, 1989) was handed down. Therefore, the second phase of the research comprised a survey questionnaire (Study 2) and semi-structured interviews (Study 3). Both studies gleaned perceptions from participants: commissioned officers in the QPS, and how they developed their leadership.

### 1.1.8 Second Phase: Context

The QPS in geographical terms is the second largest police jurisdiction and comprises the third largest police population in Australia. The QPS has 15,588 employees, consisting of both sworn police officers (11,969) and public servants (3,169). Commissioned officers (300) comprise the ranks of chief superintendent, superintendent and inspector, which constitutes about 2.5% of the total sworn police population (QPS, 2017). Figure 1.1 below lists the QPS rank structure and highlights the senior leadership ranks, which is the focus of this research.

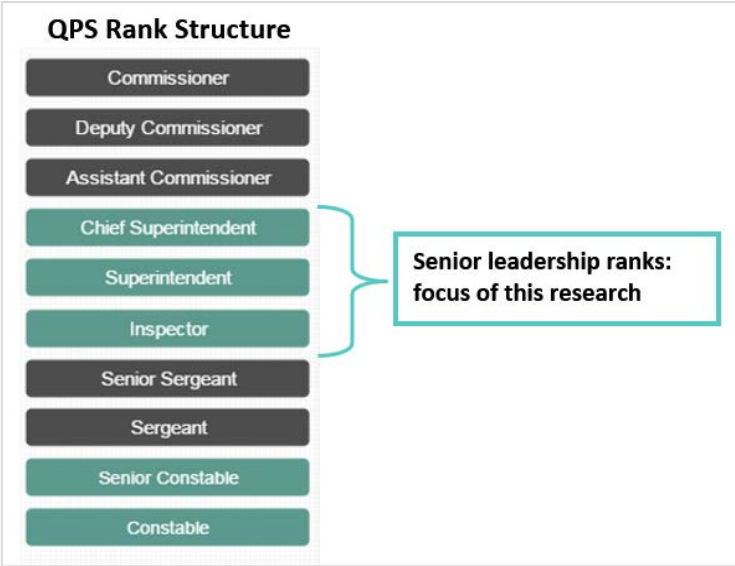


Figure 1.1: Professional and leadership development in the QPS
*Source: https://www.hierarchystructure.com/queensland-police-hierarchy/*

Professional and leadership development in QPS, from constable to inspector, is a highly structured development process dictated by promotional requirements enshrined in enterprise bargaining (EB) agreements. For example, base level constables must successfully complete a three-year Constable Development Program (CDP) to be eligible for promotion. Officers then undertake three stages of the Management Development Program (MDP) over three years. Successful completion of the MDP qualifies officers for non-commissioned officer (NCO) ranks and is a pre-requisite to enter commissioned ranks. Promotional courses cease once officers enter commissioned ranks. Instead, officers complete an assessment centre and attend an interview panel prior to promotion to a substantive position.

## 1.2 Research Aims

The broad goal of the research is to explore leadership development within Australian police organisations with a focus on the QPS. This research investigated the types of learning

experiences that enhanced the development of commissioned officers as senior police leaders. The study adopts a mixed methods approach to:

1. Identify learning methods, and other factors, impacting upon the enhancement of police leadership; and
2. Determine the extent to which leadership is acquired 'in the field' (practice) as opposed to formal settings (theory).

## 1.3 Research Questions

Research questions will focus on deriving a richer understanding of learning methods and associated factors likely to facilitate the leadership of commissioned officers. The research questions are broadly framed to allow thorough investigation by applying a mixed methods approach.

1. What methods best facilitate how senior police leaders develop their leadership?
2. What factors (other than methods) facilitate or constrain how senior police leaders develop their leadership?
3. To what extent is leadership development of senior police influenced by aspects of challenge, feedback and support?

## 1.4 Scope of the Research

The main approach adopted in this study was to derive lived work experiences and perceptions of senior officers and content matter experts regarding the leadership development of senior police leaders within an Australian policing context. This study does not critique or evaluate approaches undertaken by the QPS or other local and federal police jurisdictions in terms of their effectiveness in developing leadership capabilities of senior police. Therefore, no attempt was made to benchmark leader development approaches across

Australian police agencies. This research was not causal as no attempt was made to access the relative effectiveness of leadership development methods using 'objective' markers of performance. Instead, findings were contingent upon perceptions of jurisdictional experts and commissioned officers concerning what methods best facilitated their development as leaders. Finally, this research did not aim to describe or articulate pre-requisite conditions or factors necessary for good or effective leader development approaches.

Police organisations employ public servants or 'non-sworn' officers to fill many roles ranging from base level administrative officers through to senior executive level. Public servants share common characteristics with sworn officers including having the same employer and exposure to similar organisational systems, processes and work environment. However, sworn and 'non-sworn' officers are distinguishable by police powers possessed, uniform, rank-level structure, promotional systems, employment awards and standards of discipline, accountability and distinct cultures. Leadership development opportunities provided to sworn officers at times overlap with opportunities offered to 'non-sworn' officers, particularly at more senior levels within policing. The roles of police officers and public servants are more clearly delineated at lower levels while differences become increasingly blurred at senior executive levels. Notwithstanding, the scope of this research was confined to examining leadership development of commissioned officers.

As mentioned earlier, the scope of the research comprised two phases. The first phase adopted a broad perspective examining professional and leadership development of commissioned officers in all state and federal police jurisdictions within Australia (Study 1). This examination was purposely restricted to interviewing one agency representative to minimise impost on each organisation. In addition, such a low-key approach meant the prospect of agencies providing approval to undertake the research was enhanced.

The second phase involved two studies with QPS commissioned officers: a survey questionnaire (Study 2), and semi-structured interviews (Study 3). Every three to four years, the QPCOUE enters into a fresh round of enterprise bargaining (EB) negotiations with the (Queensland) State Government. In preparation for this engagement, the QPCOUE surveys its members on a broad range of workplace issues. With QPCOUE approval, the researcher 'piggybacked' off this process by administering the EB survey and incorporating a number of professional and leadership development questions pertaining to Study 2. Extending the scope of the research beyond the QPS to include interviews and survey questionnaires with commissioned officers from other police jurisdictions would have further enriched the breadth and depth of data gathered. However, logistical issues including time and resources associated with undertaking such a large-scale project was considered beyond the scope of this research. The strong research partnership forged between the researcher and the QPCOUE executive was unlikely to be replicated with other police organisations. Therefore, securing similar levels of support and cooperation in a timely manner from other agencies and unions was considered improbable. In addition, it was likely the researcher would have experienced significant obstacles with other police jurisdictions in replicating the same research, as Wood, Fleming, and Marks (2008) highlighted, noting the significant difficulties confronted by external researchers in conducting research in police organisations. Confidentiality and the paramilitary nature of these police organisations present substantial obstacles for external researchers to undertake research (Muller et al., 2009).

The field-based research undertaken in this study purposely adopted a narrow focus on leadership development experiences and perceptions of commissioned officers in the QPS. While this approach was confined to one police jurisdiction, it permitted the researcher to delve more deeply into officers' perceptions, allowing a greater depth and richness of the data to emerge.

## 1.5 Key Definitions

The literature deploys varying descriptors attached to leadership roles in policing. When commenting on the Australian police environment, Mitchell (2009, p. 31) described leadership roles existing at three levels: "executive (commissioners, assistant commissioners); senior managers (superintendents and inspectors); and middle managers (sergeants and senior sergeants)". As the focus on this research was on the QPS, the previous definition was subsequently modified to suit the purposes of this thesis as follows: *senior executives* comprised the commissioner, deputy commissioner and assistant commissioner; *executives* included chief superintendent and superintendent; inspectors were referred to as *senior managers* and senior sergeants described as *middle managers*. Consistent with QPS terminology, the combined ranks of senior sergeants and sergeants were referred to as *non-commissioned officers* (NCOs).

## 1.6 Ethical Considerations

The research was subject to ethical clearance by both the Central Queensland University (CQU) and the research partner i.e. QPCOUE. The CQU's Human Research Ethics Review Committee subsequently endorsed the three studies and issued the following approvals: Study 1 (interviews with jurisdictional experts) H16/07-214; Study 2 (survey questionnaire) H15/09-213; and Study 3 (stakeholder interviews): H15/10-240. The researcher also signed a memorandum of agreement (MoU) with the QPCOUE. This allowed the researcher to add questions to their existing EB survey which they conduct to inform their enterprise bargaining negotiations. The researcher was conscious of his own potential conflict of interest having previously been a sworn QPS member for over three decades, including 15 years' experience as a commissioned officer. The researcher's operational policing roles included investigations, general duties, regional duty inspector and district inspector, together with significant experience in police education and training, project management and various

strategic policy roles. As stated previously, in 2013, the QPS underwent 'whole of service' organisational restructure and one reform measure included removing approximately one quarter of senior officers' positions by offering commissioned officers (including the researcher) voluntary redundancies. As a former commissioned officer, the researcher was mindful of this throughout the duration of the study. Despite the existence of many long-standing contacts within the QPS, the researcher was cognisant to avoid situations which presented potential conflict of interest in terms of accessing data and information, other than by official means.

## 1.7 Limitations

This research has a number of limitations. As noted previously in Section 1.5 (Scope), this research made no attempt to evaluate the relative effectiveness of developmental methods undertaken by commissioned officers. It was also noted that the three studies, described previously, do not constitute causal research. Instead, this research relied heavily upon the *perceptions* of jurisdictional experts and serving (incumbent) police officers concerning various aspects of leadership development of commissioned officers. As emphasised above, the researcher possessed "insider knowledge" owing to his previous experience as commissioned officer. The literature highlights the distinct advantages associated that "insiders" possess as researchers (Fyfe, 1998; Lawson, 2016). However, inherent limitations associated with researchers, as "police insiders" (i.e. current or former serving police officers) objectively interpreting research and the potential for bias, has been noted (Lawson, 2016, p. 2). However, the researcher and his supervisory team were cognisant of these competing interests and took necessary steps to minimise the research being potentially biased. Finally, this series of studies takes place in a more or less unique context: Queensland policing. The degree to which the findings can be generalised beyond state borders, let alone internationally, needs to be questioned.

## 1.8 Outline of the Chapters

The thesis structure is described below.

### Chapter 2 Introduction to Leadership and Leadership Development

This chapter presents a broad overview of leadership and leadership development within a corporate context. Major theories and approaches associated with leadership and leadership development, and organisational structure are summarised. A broad review is provided of frameworks, learning theories and major forces impacting upon leader and leadership development. The chapter concludes with a description of common methods associated with the development of leaders.

### Chapter 3 Leadership and Leadership Development in Policing

To provide some context of leadership in policing, Chapter 3 includes a synopsis of key forces impacting contemporary police organisations. Leadership in policing is broadly reviewed together with associated leadership theories and frameworks. A discussion of leadership development in policing is provided with an emphasis on leadership development within an Australian policing context. An outline is presented of various models and frameworks associated with leadership development in policing. Finally, an overview is provided of popular methods used by police organisations to develop leaders.

### Chapter 4 Research Methodology

Chapter 4 explains the methodology and research design selected in this study and details the justifications for employing the mixed methods approach. The three studies used to collect the data are described together with the methods employed to address the research questions.

**Chapters 5–7 Data Analysis Presentation**

The data analysed from the research is detailed in Chapters 5: involving semi-structured interviews with jurisdictional experts (Study 1), and Chapter 6: comprising a survey questionnaire targeting the population of QPS commissioned officers (Study 2), and finally in Chapter 7: involving semi-structured interviews with 20 commissioned officers in the QPS (Study 3). When combined the data derived from these three studies addressed the relevant research questions.

**Chapter 8 Discussion and Conclusion**

The final chapter addresses each of the three research questions. The chapter concludes with key recommendations and suggestions for areas for future research.

## 1.9 Conclusion

This introductory chapter outlined the research used in this thesis. An outline is provided of the background to this thesis which underpins the research aims. A preview to the unique police context together with a brief introduction to leadership and leadership development in policing is provided. A description is presented of research aims, and research questions based on the gaps identified are described. The mixed methods research approach applied in this study is introduced and briefly explained. This chapter also articulates the scope of the research and describes the limitations associated with undertaking the research, with emphasis given to the contextual challenges associated with policing. A description is provided of the three studies applied in this research together with a definition of key terms associated with this research. Finally, an explanation is presented of ethical considerations pertinent to this research. Therefore, Chapter 1 provides a foundation upon which to proceed to the next chapter involving the literature review on leadership and leadership development.

# Chapter 2. Literature Review: Leadership and Leadership Development

## 2.1 Introduction

The literature review will identify theories, models, frameworks and approaches associated with the development of leaders. In addition, this review of the extant literature will also identify the leadership development frameworks that guided this research and highlight gaps in the literature, which ultimately directed the development of research aims and questions relating to this thesis. Due to the size and complexity of the literature on the broader concept of leadership (McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman, 2010; Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2010a), an in-depth analysis of the scholarly research pertaining to this field was considered to be beyond the scope of this thesis. Instead, the following discussion focuses on reviewing major theories and approaches associated with leadership and leadership development. The chapter introduces broad concepts and practices associated with leadership and leadership development together with providing a precursor to Chapter 3 where these concepts and practices are discussed within a policing context. General theories relating to leadership are introduced by providing an overview of commonly used definitions and key concepts concerning management, context and culture, organisational structure, leader development and leadership development. Significant forces that impact on leader and leadership development are also briefly examined. The importance of learning theories regarding leader development are emphasised and major theories overviewed. Common frameworks identified in the literature that are linked to leader and leadership development are discussed separately. Finally, the chapter concludes with a synopsis of the key leader development methods commonly cited in the literature. The background to the study will now be introduced prior to presenting an overview of the literature on leadership.

## 2.2 Background to the Study

In order to properly understand what determines the success or otherwise of any organisational endeavour, it is critical to research, amongst other factors, the organisation's leaders (Parris & Peachey, 2013). The critical importance of considering in which context leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2017a; Bryman et al., 1996; Day & Thornton, 2017) and leadership development is examined (see Amagoh, 2009; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017; Bolden, 2006; Bush & Glover, 2004; James, 2011) has been emphasised in the literature (Bush & Glover, 2004, p. 20). To examine the purpose and practice of leadership development, it is necessary to consider what influence the context has had in terms of determining the most suitable content, style and design of leadership development (Bolden, 2006).

This thesis was premised on the argument that any theoretical examination of leadership development needs to be undertaken within the specific context in which it operates. Because the context of this research was grounded within policing, empirical data derived from leadership development within a corporate-style business or a broader public sector environment could not be relied upon. Instead, this investigation centred on the specific context of policing to derive a deeper understanding of leadership development and what approaches enhance police leaders. The following discussion will present an overview of the broad and complex fields of leadership.

## 2.3 Introduction to Leadership

### 2.3.1 Leadership and Organisational Structure

The interplay between leadership and organisational structure has been a prevalent theme within contemporary academic discourse. Leaders are bound by organisational structures, which Wikström and Sampson (2006) define as the bonds or pivotal relations that ensure a system remains whole. The link between organisational structure and leadership has been

highlighted in the extant literature (Fitria, Mukhtar, & Akbar, 2017; Horner, 1997). Several dynamic external forces have required contemporary organisations to modify their structures, including globalisation, greater competition, expanding technology, evolving customer requirements and changing nature of the workforce (Bolman & Deal, 2017, p. 51). As a result, organisational structures have been forced to evolve and adapt, including the need to become flatter (Goffee & Scase, 2015; Peetz, Muurlink, Townsend, Wilkinson, & Brabant, 2017; Sinha & Kumar, 2016), with a greater emphasis on teamwork (Butler, 2017; Moxen & Strachan, 2017; Pearce & Conger, 2002).

The evolving design of organisational structures, including rapid advancements in technology, increased globalisation, evolving organisational structures and changing career paths (Ilgen & Pulakos, 1999; Kraut & Korman, 1999), have coincided with significant changes in leadership styles that are required to successfully lead transformed organisational structures (Horner, 1997). The contemporary leader faces a significantly flattened organisational structure, courtesy of competitive work environments (Giber, Carter, & Goldsmith, 2000; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004) and rapid advances in technology (Bolman & Deal, 2017; Dalakoura, 2010; Wassenaar & Pearce, 2017). Teams have also risen as an organisational sub-structure requiring modified leadership (Giber et al., 2000; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Theorists such as Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, and Turner (1996) argued that organisational structure could be mainly attributed to contextual factors. The following discussion will examine the link between leadership and context, which is the premise for underpinning future discussions concerning police leadership and leadership development.

### 2.3.2 Leadership and Context

A review of the literature reveals that no discussion on leadership is complete without also examining the constant and dynamic interplay between leadership and the context in which it operates. Leadership plays a critical role in organisations, particularly in terms of influencing organisational performance (Antonakis & Day, 2017a; Bush & Jackson, 2002; Vardiman, Houghton, & Jinkerson, 2006; Waldman, Javidan, & Varella, 2004) and supporting organisational culture (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003). 'Leadership' is a widely used and popular term which has defied definitional consensus (Alimo-Metcalfe & Lawler, 2001; Bennis, 2007; Kingshott, 2006; Vardiman et al., 2006). Vardiman et al. (2006) persuasively assert leadership involves the attainment of objectives through a process of influence, while Popper and Lipshitz (1993) contend leadership involves motivating individuals towards doing something through non-coercive means. From a conceptual perspective, leadership has been treated as a skill possessed by an individual (Day, 2001). Alternatively, Northouse (2017) argues leadership can be considered from numerous perspectives, including a trait, ability, skill, behaviour, relationship and as an influential process. The literature acknowledges leadership is a far more complex concept, which encapsulates relationships between social and organisational environments and the leader (Dalakoura, 2010; Fiedler, 1996; House & Aditya, 1997; Hunt & Dodge, 2001; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Day and Zaccaro (2004, p. 391) assert that "leadership occurs in a social context and is a direct function of the relationships or connections among individuals in a given situation".

### 2.3.3 Conventional Leadership Theories, Approaches and Styles

Contemporary leadership literature is awash with a broad array of leadership theories, approaches and styles, which underscores the sheer complexity and diversity of the field. Numerous attempts to classify leadership have resulted in the emergence of many conventional theories, approaches and styles. For instance, Yukl (1989) grouped leadership

theories into four main categories: trait, behaviour, power-influence and situational factors. Northouse (2017) posited three generic theoretical leadership styles: authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire. Bryman (1999) divided it into four broad approaches: trait, style, contingency and new leadership approaches. Brungardt (1997, p. 82) posited that most leadership theories can be categorised into five broad approaches: trait, behavioural, situational, power-influence, and transformational. Alternatively, Yukl (2010, p. 30) argued that a more practical way of classifying leadership theory was by way of three more frequently highlighted variables: (i) characteristics of leaders; (ii) characteristics of followers; and (iii) characteristics of the situation (or context). The table below summarises some of the more popular conventional leadership theories, approaches and styles found in the extant literature by categorising them into three broad approaches: leadership styles, leadership contexts and leadership characteristics.

**Table 2.1: Popular Conventional Leadership Theories, Approaches and Styles**

| | |
|---|---|
| *Characteristics approaches* | Trait approach<br>Skills approach<br>Style approach<br>Psycho-dynamic approach |
| *Leadership contexts approaches* | Culture and leadership<br>Situational approach<br>Contingency approach<br>Path-goal theory<br>Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) |
| *Leadership styles approaches* | Transformational leadership<br>Servant leadership<br>Authentic leadership<br>Team leadership |

*Source: Brungardt, 1997; Bryman, 1999; Northouse, 2017; Yukl, 1989*

Contingency approaches to leadership rely heavily on context and describe how traditional contingency leadership theory could be broadly summarised into two categories. The first category examines the traits of leaders and outcomes achieved and the second category focuses on behaviours of leaders and outcomes achieved (Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017, p. 156).

This thesis will draw upon aspects of contingency theory by examining how traits and behaviours of police leaders impact leadership development. Ayman and Lauritsen (2017, p. 148) also examined leadership by examining inputs (i.e. organisational and cultural contexts) and outputs (i.e. behavioural and attitudinal aspects). To align leadership with context, this research will broadly adopt the approach adopted by Ayman and Lauritsen (2017) when exploring aspects of how senior leaders develop within a policing context.

### 2.3.4 Post-Conventional Leadership Theories

Davis (2017) notes the trend within scholarly discourse away from traditional leadership theoretical constructs, towards post-conventional or alternative leadership theories. Conventional leadership theories tend to focus on the individual at the expense of context or process (Uhl-Bien, 2011) and on key characteristics and behaviours displayed by individual leaders and the relationships or bonds formed between the individual leader and subordinates (Pearce & Conger, 2002). Post-conventional leadership theories provide different theoretical leadership approaches which acknowledge the "relational, shared and distributed nature of leadership" (Davis, 2017, p. 54). A less conventional leadership theory, which challenges the significance of traditional theories, includes "followership leadership" theory (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). While the origins of followership research can be traced to the 1950s, the theory did not attract significant scholarly attention until Kelley (1988) published the seminal article on followership (Baker, 2007). While the role of followers had often been ignored in leadership theory, recently more attention has been paid to the influence followers have in the leadership process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In followership theory, contextual factors have been found to impact on the behaviour of followers (Carsten et al., 2010). Followership can be viewed from two theoretical lenses – one from a role-based approach and the other from a "constructionist" or leadership process

(Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In spite of the growing interest in followership as a theoretical construct, Davis (2017) notes the focus of scholarly discussion remains centred on the role of the leader.

Shared leadership (also described as distributed leadership) (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Fletcher & Kaufer, 2003; Kalinovich & Marrone, 2017; Pearce & Conger, 2002) continues to challenge orthodox leader-centric leadership philosophies (Davis, 2017; Pearce & Conger, 2002). Pearce and Conger (2002, p. 1) explain shared leadership is when "leadership is broadly distributed among a set of individuals instead of centralised in the hand of a single individual who acts in the role of a superior". The theory of shared leadership treats it as a collaborative and social process (Davis, 2017). However, in spite of the emergence of post conventional leadership theories, Gronn (2011) argues that more traditional notions of leadership theoretical constructs still hold sway in most current theoretical discourse.

In summary, despite the lack of consensus on an agreed definition of leadership, theories, approaches and styles associated with leadership continue to evolve. The literature highlights various external forces impacting on organisational structures and practices, which have resulted in changes to leadership styles. Contemporary workplace challenges require today's leaders to demonstrate a more collaborative style of leadership, with less reliance placed on a person's authority, position or title to facilitate positive organisational outcomes (Day & Thornton, 2017). The following discussion will briefly distinguish between the concepts of leadership and management.

### 2.3.5 Leadership and Management

In contrast to the study of leadership, scholarly interest in management theory and practice has waned in recent decades. However, any discussion on leadership would be incomplete without first differentiating the two terms. In spite of their different meanings, the terms "leadership" and "management" are frequently blurred, misunderstood and applied interchangeably (Antonakis & Day, 2017a; Northouse, 2017). While both concepts involve influence, Northouse (2017, p. 7) contends that leadership entails searching for constructive change, while management focuses on establishing order. Scholarly writings also make references to the concepts of both "leadership development" and "management development", which demonstrates the general unsystematic use of these terms in the literature (Suutari & Viitala, 2008). Conceptually, theorists' understanding of the link between "leadership" and "management" continues to evolve. For example, Kotter (2001) explained simply that management is about dealing with complexity, as leadership is about dealing with change. Management has also been described as "task-driven" and leadership is more aligned to being "purpose-driven", grounded on "values, ideals, visions, symbols and emotional exchanges" (Antonakis & Day, 2017b, p. 6). Modern businesses are invariably over managed and under-led. Therefore, the reason why leadership has become increasingly important in recent times can be attributed to the rapid pace of change experienced by contemporary organisations (Kotter, 2001). The relationship between organisational culture and leadership will be briefly introduced prior to exploring the literature on leadership development in Section 2.4.

### 2.3.6 Organisational Culture and Leadership

Any examination of leadership would be lacking without recourse to the omnipresent references in the literature concerning the interplay between leadership and culture. For instance, the dynamic and symbiotic relationship that exists between culture and leadership, where one cannot exist without the other, has been noted in the literature (Ayman & Lauritsen, 2017; Sharma & Sharma, 2010), including a significant positive correlation between organisational culture and leadership behaviour (Tsai, 2011). Leadership success has been linked to having a healthy, aligned organisational culture (Myatt, 2014). According to McConnell (2013, p. 24), "Organisational culture is the underlying assumptions, beliefs, and perceptions shared and transmitted by the members of a group or organisation that shapes individual and group behaviour". In contrast, Myatt (2014, p. 38) succinctly describes organisational culture as the "sum of all organisational parts". Organisations can have their own culture acquired from common learning leading to joint assumptions about how to behave and interact internally (Schein, 2010). When leaders first assemble groups and establish organisations, they create culture. Once embedded, organisational cultures prescribe the leadership required and ultimately decide on who will and who will not become leaders (Schein, 2010, p. 22). The relationship between culture and leadership continues to evolve as our world becomes more connected through technology (Schein, 2010). For organisational culture to be sustained, leaders must integrate culture into every aspect of the organisation's systems and practices (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003). While the previous section provided an outline of leadership, this section introduces the field of leadership development, including context, strategic issues, theories, models and frameworks, together with leadership development methods.

## 2.4 Leadership Development

### 2.4.1 Introduction

Similar to the field of leadership, a review of the academic offerings involving leadership development reveals a densely populated field of research. Leadership development is defined as "an expansion of a person's capacity to be effective in leadership roles and processes" (McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010, p. 2) and noted as a strategic imperative for organisations (Cacioppe, 1998a; Leskiw & Singh, 2007) for its inherent complexity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Day & Thornton, 2017) as a means of gaining competitive advantage (Day, 2001; Frawley, Favaloro, & Schulenkorf, 2018) for enhancing individual and organisational performance (Bolden, 2016; Cacioppe, 1998a; Subramony, Segers, Chadwick, & Shyamsunder, 2018). Activities designed to enhance leadership development within organisations are often undertaken with scant regard to the underlying theories and concepts upon which they are premised (Bolden, 2016). Despite the plethora of publications on the topic, leadership development is still a complex and unexplored domain which warrants further empirical research. For instance, Day and Thornton (2017) questioned the quality of the extant literature and highlighted the considerable disparity between theory and practice. The following discussion regarding leadership development is premised on the understanding there is no "winning" method or best approach to developing leaders (McCauley, Van Velsor &Ruderman, 2010).

### 2.4.2 Leadership Development and Context

The significance of context when examining leadership was noted earlier. This thesis is not unique in placing similar emphasis on the importance of context when developing leaders (see Bryman, 1999; Edwards et al., 2013; Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kets de Vries & Korotov, 2010; McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman, 2010), particularly the need for leadership development to be grounded in context (see Bryman, 1999; Edwards et al., 2013;

Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004; Kets de Vries & Korotov, 2010). Whilst the importance of context in leadership development has been noted by scholars, a lack of empirical evidence exists concerning how context makes the development of leaders meaningful (Hamilton & Bean, 2005). Context is multifaceted in nature, which infers that developing leadership capability occurs in varying circumstances (Day, 2001). In summary, the literature emphasises the critical importance of context when considering any leadership development approach. As McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) argue, because leadership development is so heavily contingent upon widely varying contexts which exist within organisations, no definitive or best way to develop all leaders is possible.

### 2.4.3 Strategic Issues Impacting Upon Leadership Development

Leadership development is not confined to a collection of developmental approaches; therefore, it is important to explore how broader strategic factors impact leadership development. The need for top management support, for instance, has been stressed as imperative for the success of any leadership development venture (see Block & Manning, 2007; Burgoyne & Turnbull James, 2001; Carter, Ulrich, & Goldsmith, 2004; Gradney, 2008; Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Leskiw & Singh, 2007). In the absence of a strong chief executive officer (CEO) and top management support for leadership development, all employees will question the futility of developing their leadership and invest their time and energy elsewhere (Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Kesler, 2002). Another strategic imperative concerns clearly articulating the link between leadership development and the organisation's strategic objectives (see Burgoyne & Turnbull James, 2001; Cacioppe, 1998a; Carter et al., 2004; Giber, Lam, Goldsmith, & Bourke, 2009; Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McAlearney, 2006; Weiss & Molinaro, 2006). Multiple stakeholders need to accept shared responsibility for integrating leadership development throughout the organisation (Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Leskiw & Singh, 2007) and organisations,

systems, and processes need to be fully assimilated with leadership development (Amagoh, 2009; Cacioppe, 1998b; Dalakoura, 2010; Groves, 2007; Weiss & Molinaro, 2006). In addition, the critical strategic importance of having leadership development firmly embedded within an organisation's culture has been highlighted (see Amagoh, 2009; Brown & Posner, 2001; Burgoyne & Turnbull James, 2001; Conger & Benjamin, 1999; Giber et al., 2009; McClelland, 1994). In terms of facilitating change, best-practice organisations recognise that the leadership development processes must align with the organisation's culture (Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001). Leadership development needs to be integrated with daily work practices and, therefore, become intertwined with the organisation's culture (Dalakoura, 2010; McClelland, 1994). Organisational culture can have a dramatic impact upon the development of its leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Effective leadership development can contribute to permeating a leadership culture throughout the organisation (Dalakoura, 2010).

### 2.4.4 Learning Theories Associated with Leadership Development

No discussion on leadership development would be complete without a recourse to pertinent learning theories, which underpin how individuals learn leadership (Allen, 2007; Wang, 2015). While Allen (2007) acknowledges no "all-compassing" adult learning theory exists, he highlights the importance of understanding the purposes of the primary theories associated with adult learning. Therefore, when determining the design of leadership development programs, learning approaches form a vital component in the overall process (Wang, 2015). The link between adult learning theory and leadership development might seem a "natural" one, but has been largely overlooked by leadership scholars. Merriam and Bierema (2013) described how Allen (2007) investigated the link between four major learning theories, namely behaviourism, cognitivism, social learning, and constructivist/developmental theories, to leadership development. Behaviourists posit that learning is derived through external stimulus and response. Therefore, students merely respond to external stimuli

including teachers and fellow students (Allen, 2007). In contrast, Schunk (2012, p. 22) believes cognitive theories "stress the acquisition of knowledge and skills, the formation of mental structures and the processing of information and beliefs". Social learning theory represents a less extreme form of behaviourism and is a learning concept most often associated with Bandura (1977) and Wortley (2011). Bandura (1977) suggests humans learn by modelling their behaviour within their environments. This theory emphasises learning acquired within a social context (McConnell, 2013). Learning occurs when a relationship is formed between the environment and the learner (Allen, 2007), or as a social event which occurs through interaction between individuals (Marodin, Waterhouse, & Malik, 2017). Constructivism/developmental theory involves how learners construct reality and, subsequently, derive meaning from those experiences. Transformational learning is closely associated with constructivism/developmental theory and results when individuals contemplate their environment and learning through a process of critical reflection (Allen, 2007). Experiential learning theory – founded by Kolb (1984, 1985, 2014) can be likened to transformational learning, with learning experiences and critical reflection as key components of adult learning and change. DeRue, Nahrgang, Hollenbeck, and Workman (2012) argue that the most scholarly research indicates that leadership development is underpinned by experiential learning theories.

Radical workplace changes have forced organisations to rethink how they facilitate their learning. These transformations have resulted in an increased emphasis on informal and incidental learning approaches, as a means of facilitating continuous learning (Watkins & Marsick, 1992). Recent studies on informal and incidental learning focussed on how adults acquire their learning within a workplace context (see Conlon, 2004; Marodin et al., 2017; Marsick, Volpe, & Watkins, 1999; Marsick & Watkins, 2001; Marsick, Watkins, Callahan, & Volpe, 2006). Informal and incidental learning is not new, with the theory developed further

by Marsick and Watkins (1990) who drew upon the earlier work of both (Dewey, 1938) and Lewin (1951). Marsick and Watkins (1990) posited that informal or incidental learning occurs within a workplace context and is enriched through critical reflection. The learning process is prompted by a problem encountered and progresses by identifying and attempting to solve that problem (Marsick et al., 2006). Unstructured or informal learning, which occurs within workplace environments, can play a pivotal role in addressing the learning and training requirements of employees (Marodin et al., 2017).

### 2.4.5 Leadership Development Models, Theories and Frameworks

The table below, adapted from Fulmer's (1997) classical article *The Evolving Paradigm of Leadership Development*, identifies seven major shifts in the evolution of leadership development, which are still salient and centre on key elements associated with leadership development.

**Table 2.2: Seven Major Shifts in Leadership Development**

| Key Elements | Past | Present Shift | Future |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Participants** | Listener | Student | Learner |
| **Program Design** | Event | Curriculum | Continuous process |
| **Aim or purpose** | Knowledge | Wisdom | Action |
| **Period** | Past | Present | Future |
| **Roles of key players** | Specialist | Content | Process/result |
| **Delivery focus** | Style | Content | Process/result |
| **Venue** | Tertiary campus | Corporate facility | Unrestricted |

*Source: adapted from Fulmer (1997)*

Despite the importance organisations attach to developing their leaders, scholars have lamented the existence of a validated framework or theory in this area (see Avolio & Hannah, 2008; McCauley, 2008). However, Day, Harrison, and Halpin (2009, p. 4) contend that due

to the numerous disciplines associated with leadership development "no single approach can address the full complexity and richness of the leadership development process". Undaunted, numerous researchers have tried to create contemporary models of leadership development, which have culminated in a myriad of approaches (see Day, 2001; Giber et al., 2000; Schein, 2010). Leskiw and Singh (2007) studied these different frameworks and proposed a model comprising six key factors associated with effective leadership development. Table 2.3 provides an overview of four broad leadership development frameworks, including a brief description and the main components or phases for each framework. When compared, these frameworks reveal the widely divergent approaches reflected in the disparity over the number and nature of the components or phases involved**.** Section 2.4.6 below defines and distinguishes the terms "leader development" and "leadership development". An overview is presented on how learning theories are related to leadership development. A brief description is provided of models, frameworks and methods associated with developing leaders.

**Table 2.3: Broad Leadership Development Frameworks**

| Authors | Brief Description | Main components or phases |
|---|---|---|
| Leskiw and Singh (2007) | Six key factors can be linked to effective leadership development | i) needs assessment; ii) audience selection; iii) supporting infrastructure in place; iv) developing a learning system; v) evaluate effectiveness; and vi) reward success and improve on deficiencies. |
| Bennis (2000) | Six-*phase* approach to leadership development | i) business diagnosis; ii) assessment; iii) program design; iv) implementation; v) on-the-job support; (vi) evaluation |
| DeRue and Myers (2014) | Centres on a seven-component organising framework | The PREPARE framework consists of seven key components: i) Purpose, ii) Result, iii) Experience, iv) Point of Intervention, v) Architecture, vi) Reinforcement, and vii) Engagement |
| Cacioppe (1998) | Integrated seven stage approach | i) articulate strategic imperatives<br>ii) set objectives for developmental<br>iii) identify appropriate methods and approaches<br>iv) select providers & design learning programs<br>v) evaluate program delivery<br>vi) integrate with Human Resource Systems<br>vii) evaluation of strategic imperatives, objectives & HR systems |

Source: adapted from Bennis (2000); Cacioppe, (1998); DeRue and Myers (2014) and Leskiw & Singh (2007).

### 2.4.6 Introduction to Leader Development

Some scholars have attempted to distinguish the terms 'leader development' and 'leadership development'. Notwithstanding, within the literature, these terms are still often used interchangeably, with no discernible differentiation made between them (Belinskaja & Paulienė, 2012), resulting in conceptual confusion (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). Leader development merely focuses on enhancing leadership capabilities of individual leaders (Dalakoura, 2010). In contrast, leadership development has a much wider meaning than leader development (Dalakoura, 2010) and involves a process of development that concentrates on a group of individuals (Day et al., 2014). Full leadership development facilitates the enhancement of not only individuals but also the collective force of teams and organisations (Avolio, 1999). Distinguishing between the two terms should not result in one term assuming higher importance or significance over the other. Day (2001), for instance, argues that both leader development and leadership development are equally important. The primary focus of this thesis was on individual leaders; therefore, the term "leader development" will be preferred.

There is common agreement in the literature that no single theory adequately explains how leader development occurs (Avolio & Hannah, 2008; Day, 2000; Riggio, 2008). The ensuing discussion will briefly explain the broader literature on commonly cited leader development models and frameworks.

### 2.4.7 Leader Development Models and Frameworks

A broad range of leader development models and frameworks can be found within contemporary academic literature. Concepts, theories and frameworks pertaining to leader development continue to evolve in response to rapidly changing workplace dynamics, together with the associated theory and practice of social sciences (McConnell, 2013). A

review of the literature revealed seven popular leader development frameworks and they are listed in Table 2.4. A model by Wilson and Van Velsor (2011) for senior executives revealed five general clusters of experience considered important in developing leadership. A similar model promoted by Campbell, Dardis, and Campbell (2003) incorporated five major processes associated with developing leaders, including planned job assignments and experiences. A number of researchers have advocated that leader development generally occurs through three mechanisms—formal instruction, work assignments and self-directed learning (Day & Zaccaro, 2004; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004; Zaccaro, Wood, & Herman, 2006). Allio (2005) proposed a slightly different three stage approach which included the creation of learning experiences. McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) and others have championed a 70:20:10 leadership learning mix, which posits that approximately 70% of learning is acquired through various on-the-job learning experiences (with 20% learnt from managers and colleagues and 10% from courses and reading). O'Connell (2014, p. 8) adopts a holistic perspective of leader development, which spans an individual's career and life based on the five webs of belief. These constructs are: "learning, reverence, purpose, authenticity and flaneur" (balance/reflexivity). Finally, McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010, p.1) promoted a two-part development model. The first component incorporated three critical elements: assessment, development and support, which, when combined, culminate arguably into stronger developmental experiences (Day & Thornton, 2017; Van Velsor, McCauley & Moxley, 2004). The second part of the model incorporates a diverse array of developmental experiences coupled with the leader's acquired learning from those experiences. This model also emphasises that the leader development process is underpinned by context, and that there is no superior way to lead or to enhance leaders as this is contingent upon the context in which the leader is operating (McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010) (see Table 2.4). It is evident that many researchers have emphasised the importance of experience in terms of

developing leadership and there is considerable consensus in the literature that the primary source of leadership development is experience (DeRue & Myers, 2014; McCall, 2004; Ohlott, 2004; Thomas & Cheese, 2005).

## Table 2.4: Popular Leader Development Frameworks

| Source | Brief Description | Main components, phases or steps |
|---|---|---|
| **Wilson and Van Velsor (2011)** | Five general clusters of experience considered important in developing leadership of a senior executive. | Five clusters of experience include: i) challenging assignments; ii) developing relationships; (iii) coursework and training; (iv) adverse situations; and (v) personal experiences. |
| **Campbell et al. (2003)** | Leader development comprises five major processes. | Five major processes comprise: (i) mentoring and modelling; (ii) formal executive training; (iii) planned job assignments and experiences; (iv) formal feedback; and (v) reflective self-evaluation. |
| **Day and Zaccaro (2004); Zaccaro and Banks (2004) and Zaccaro et al. (2006)** | Leader development generally occurs through three mechanisms. | Three mechanisms involve: (i) formal instruction; (ii) work assignments; and iii) self-directed learning. |
| **Allio (2005)** | Three steps are considered critical in developing effective leaders. | Three critical steps comprise: (i) selecting the right candidates; (ii) creating learning challenges; and (iii) providing mentoring. |
| **McCall et al. (1988)** | 70:20:10 leadership learning mix. | About 10% of leadership is acquired through traditional classroom-style development. A further 20% is developed via mentoring, with the final 70% completed through various on-the-job learning experiences. |
| **O'Connell (2014).** | Involves five webs or constructs or cognitive schemas which guide a leader's development across their career and life span. | The five webs are: flaneur (balance/reflexivity) authenticity (self-awareness/positive moral perspective), Purpose (self-regulation); Reverence (relational/collective) and learning (creativity/expertise) |
| **McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010)** | Two-part model (i.e. developmental experiences and developmental process). Integrates learning experiences via three key strategies. Strengthen individual's ability to achieve learning from experience; Match leader development approach with leadership context. | Comprises three main strategies: integrated learning experiences via assessment, challenge and support. |

### 2.4.8 The 70:20:10 Developmental Model

The 70:20:10 leadership learning model, espoused by McCall et al. (1988) warrants further attention due to its popularity in Australian policing. For instance, the 70:20:10 learning approach has been applied by the AIPM, as well as the QPS and the Tasmania Police Service, all of which have integrated the model into various professional and leadership development programs. Differing interpretations of the 70:20:10 rule have been developed by various scholars including Jennings and Wargnier (2012) and Rabin (2014) (see Figure 2.1 below).

**70:20:10 Rule for Leadership Development**

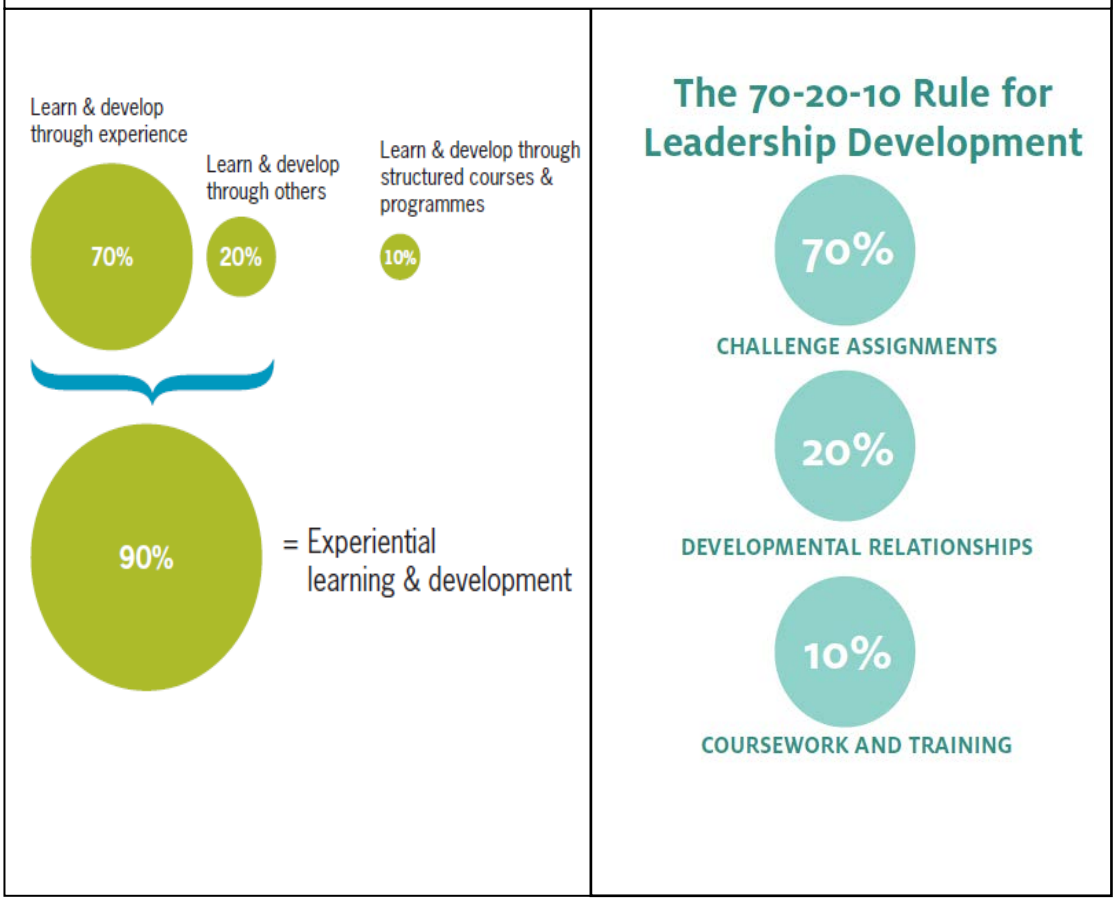


Figure 2.1: 70:20:10 rule for leadership development:
*Source: Jennings and Wargnier, 2012; Rabin, 2014.*

To recap, the 70:20:10 leadership learning model mix, promoted by McCall et al. (1988) and others, postulates that approximately 70% of development is acquired through diverse work-based learning experiences; 20% acquired via relationships such as mentoring; and the remaining 10% obtained through traditional formal structured training and development. Over time, the model has been refined with differing descriptors attached to the three major elements, including structured learning (10%), learning from others (20%), and learning from experience (70%) (see Figure 2.1). Kajewski and Madsen (2013, p. 4) noted that despite its popularity and the diverse labels attached to the three categories, no solid empirical evidence exists to support the validity of the 70:20:10 model. Despite being three decades since the 70:20:10 learning model was first advocated by McCall and fellow authors, its popular appeal endures, as evidenced by contemporary scholarly references to the concept (see Day & Thornton, 2017; DeRue & Myers, 2014; Kajewski & Madsen, 2013).

The 70:20:10 learning model was chosen to guide this research due to its application within the QPS, as well as being focused on *context*, which lends the model being applied to the rich contextual milieu of policing. To reiterate, McCall's leadership learning model is not the only learning framework within the broader leadership development literature. However, the model has been adopted by the AIPM and the Tasmania Police, together with the Leadership Development Unit (LDU), attached to the Queensland Police Academy. Therefore, its influence in any QPS leader development offerings cannot be underestimated

#### *2.4.8.1 Two-part model: (i.e. developmental experiences and developmental process) of leader development (revisited)*

The two-part model (i.e. developmental experiences and developmental process) leader development model described in Section 2.4.7 by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) also warrants further examination given that the QPS leadership development program is aligned with the first phase of the model. The initial part of this model is predicated on

three critical elements which, when combined, make developmental experiences stronger: i) assessment (referred to as “feedback” which is explained in Section 2.5); ii) challenge; and iii) support. For this research, the term “assessment” has been substituted by the term “feedback”, as assessment potentially invokes images in the learner’s mind of being more or less objectively tested, evaluated or scrutinised, with the accompanying threat of failure. A number of scholars have advocated the importance of these three elements in developing leadership (Booysen, 2014; Day, 2001, 2011; Farr & Brazil, 2009; Gray & Bishop, 2009; McCauley & Wakefield, 2006; Orr, 2006). If organisations applied this approach in an organised and planned manner, then each individual’s developmental experience will be exposed to varying amounts of all three elements (Campbell et al., 2003).

The second part of the model advocated by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) describes leader development as a process that encapsulates diverse developmental experiences, combined with an individual’s ability to learn from those experiences. McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) explain that a complex array of learning strategies, personality traits and motivational factors determine an individual’s ability to learn. The leader development process is also grounded in the specific leadership context in which the individual operates. Context is important because it moulds the leader development process in terms of how assessment, challenge and support are implemented, the different types of development methods or approaches used and the opportunities and reasons for development (McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman, 2010), (see Figure 2.2). The three critical elements of assessment (feedback), challenge and support within McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman’s model are further explored in the following discussion.

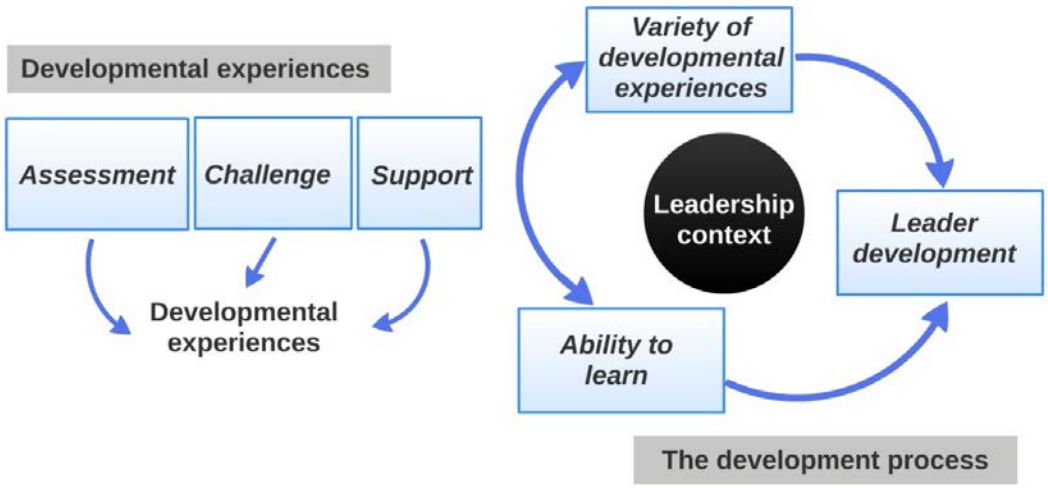


Figure 2.2: Two-part model (developmental experiences and developmental process) of leader development:
*Source: McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman, 2010*

## 2.5 Assessment (Feedback)

To be more effective, developmental experiences need to be rich in assessment incorporating feedback. The critical importance of feedback in the leadership development process has also been emphasised in literature by several researchers (McCall et al., 1988; McCauley, Kanaga, & Lafferty, 2010). Feedback from assessment provides individuals with an understanding of their relative strengths and weaknesses (McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010) and enables individuals to target areas in need of further development (Gray & Bishop, 2009). Assessment information can be derived informally and also through formal methods such as performance appraisals, 360 degree feedback and assessment centres (McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty, 2010; McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010). Day and Thornton (2017) warn that the lack of empirical evidence exists to prove that formal assessment methods alone result in improvements in leadership capability. In terms of challenging assignments that stretch an individual's capabilities, there is a need for rapid and high quality feedback to support the results of the assessment to maximise learning outcomes (Ericsson, 2009). Finally, this feedback provides individuals with an estimate of their "developmental

readiness" to undertake challenging or "stretch" assignments (Day et al., 2009), which form part of the *challenge* component.

## 2.6 Challenge

An individual is challenged when they are taken out of their comfort zone, which makes them feel unsafe or insecure (Berman & Davis-Berman, 2005). This process includes leaders confronting new experiences that will result in them acquiring new capabilities. Experiences that are challenging force individuals to rethink their abilities, strategies and mental framework, which extends them, enabling new skills and capabilities to be developed (McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010). However, Day et al. (2009) warn that some experiences may prove too challenging for an individual and result in a debilitating rather than a developmental experience, which highlights the need for *support* in coping with the demands of the challenge.

## 2.7 Support

Theorists argue that the provision of support enhances the leader's motivation and increases their self-belief to learn, grow and develop (Gray & Bishop, 2009). Support aids development because it provides individuals with a safety net and the reassurance that stability exists once the change process has taken place. It is important that support is provided to individuals in regard to developing their self-efficacy or self-belief in their competence (Day et al., 2009). Finally, work experiences that have ample support enable individuals to better manage stresses that accompany development ( McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010).

In addition to the 70:20:10 learning model, McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman's (2010) two-part learning model will also guide this research owing to its application within the QPS together with being predicated on context, which holds significance within the rich milieu of

policing. An overview of commonly used leader development methods will be explored in the following discussion.

## 2.8 Leader Development Methods

Different ways or methods to develop leaders are regularly cited within the extant literature, which aim to build leadership capability. However, no one training program or developmental intervention alone will result in effective leaders (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000). A summary of leader development methods is detailed in Table 2.5, based on the classical reviews of industry best-practices undertaken by Day and Haipin (2001) and Campbell et al. (2003). Recent research revealed that the most commonly cited six developmental methods for leaders were: "formal training, job assignments, action learning, executive coaching mentoring and 360 degree feedback" (Petrie, 2014, p. 9). Despite the existence of numerous leader development methods and the plethora of scholarly research in this field, researchers have noted that methods have not altered significantly in recent years (Kirchner & Akdere, 2017; Petrie, 2014). While the research was undertaken more than 15 years ago, Table 2.5 includes the six previously listed methods and arguably still depicts a relatively accurate portrayal of contemporary leadership developmental approaches, including relative strengths and weaknesses. The authors have categorised best-practice approaches into five major processes: (1) formal (formal programs and outdoor challenges); (2) relationship-based approaches (mentoring, modelling and networks); (3) planned job assignments and experiences (job assignments and action learning); (4) reflective self-evaluation (reflection); and (5) formal feedback (360 degree feedback). Instead, the three broad leadership development categories espoused by (McCall et al., 1988)—formal programs, challenging workplace experiences, and development of relationships—will be briefly reviewed.

**Table 2.5: Summary of Industry Best Practices in Leader Development**

| Major Processes | Practice | Description | Development Target | Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Formal training** | Formal program | Classroom style learning. | Skill development; Self-knowledge; Learning principles. | Flexible and efficient. | Poor transfer of learning; Lack of support on job. |
| | Outdoor challenge | Team-building experiences in outdoor/wilderness settings. | Teamwork; Self-understanding. | Emotionally charged; Action-oriented. | Poor job transfer; Potentially dangerous. |
| **Mentoring & modelling** | Mentoring | Advising/developmental relationships, usually with a senior manager. | Broader understanding; Advancement catalyst; Lesson learning/avoid mistakes. | Strong personal bond. | Peer jealously; Over dependence. |
| | Coaching | Practical, goal-focussed form of one-on-one learning. | Self-knowledge; Behavioural change; Career development. | Personalised; Intensive. | Perceive stigma (remedial); Expensive. |
| | Networks | Connecting to others in different functions and areas. | Better problem-solving; Learning who to consult for project help Socialisation. | Builds organisation. | *Ad hoc*; Unstructured. |
| **Planned job assignments & experiences** | Job Assignments | Providing "stretch" assignments in terms of role, function, or geography. | Skills development; Broader understanding of the business. | Job relevant; Accelerates learning. | Conflict between performance and development; No structure for learning. |
| | Action Learning | Project-based learning direct at important business problems. | Socialisation; Teamwork; Implement strategy. | Tied to business imperatives; Action-orientated. | Time Intensive; Leadership lessons not always clear; Over-emphasis on results. |
| **Reflective self-evaluation** | Reflection | In-depth thinking about personal experience. | Understanding lessons of experience; Self-understanding. | Enhanced learning. Personal. | Time and guidance to do effectively; Poor job transfer. |
| **Formal feedback** | 360 degree feedback | Multi-source ratings of performance. | Self-knowledge' Behavioural change. | Comprehensive picture; Buy-in. | Overwhelming amount of data; no guidance on how to change; time and effort. |

Source: adapted from Day and Haipin (2001) and Campbell et al. (2003)

## 2.9 Formal (Structured) Learning

Formal (structured) programs include conventional training conducted within classroom settings. Classroom leadership training was once considered the most important formal method of promoting the capabilities of leaders. However, the importance of this classroom-style training has declined to such an extent it now thought to comprise the least critical aspect of leadership development (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004). Classroom training results in the poor transfer of the training to the workplace (Day, 2000) and is ineffective and very expensive to facilitate (Goh, 2008). While structured classroom training continues to remain popular in developing leaders, organisations concede that this approach is only partially effective in equipping leaders to meet contemporary challenges (Day & Thornton, 2017; Dotlich & Noel, 1998). For higher order leadership skills and proficiency required in senior leadership roles, learning must continue beyond the classroom and extend to the workplace (Day & Thornton, 2017). In addition, McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty (2010) promote a more contemporary view when articulating formal leader development methods, which encapsulate tertiary programs, skills oriented training, personal development programs and feedback-intensive programs.

## 2.10 Challenging Workplace Experiences

Various scholars have emphasised the value of workplace learning as a critical aspect of learning leadership (McCall, 2004; McCall et al., 1988; McCauley, Van Velsor & Ruderman, 2010). Despite the popularity of structured or conventional training programs, much of their learning as a leader is acquired through various experiential type learning within the workplace (Day & Thornton, 2017; McCall, 2004). Research on how leaders develop via on-the-job challenges can be broadly grouped into three primary categories: (i) job transitions comprising new tasks and demonstrating their ability; (ii) task-focussed characteristics, such as implementing change, dealing with external pressure and influencing others without

resorting to using their authority; (iii) dealing with obstacles, such as un-supportive superiors or demanding bosses (Day & Thornton, 2017, p. 368). Alternatively, McCauley, Kanaga, & Lafferty (2010, p. 45) listed workplace development activities to include job transfers, job rotations, increased work responsibilities, short-term assignments, action learning assignments and leadership positions external to their substantive position at work. To maximise learning outcomes, on-the-job experiences need to be sufficiently challenging – or what is commonly referred to as "stretch" assignments (Day et al., 2009). However, when the work experience becomes too challenging, coupled with inadequate feedback and support, an individual's skill development can suffer (Day & Thornton, 2017).

In summary, research has emphasised the importance of experience in terms of developing leadership. In addition, there is considerable consensus in the literature that the primary source of leadership development is experience (Day & Thornton, 2017; DeRue & Myers, 2014; Hezlett, 2016; McCall, 2004, 2010; Ohlott, 2004; Thomas & Cheese, 2005).

## 2.11 Developmental Relationships

A review of scholarly works involving leadership development highlights a prominent and recurring theme; the critical significance of establishing effective relationships. For instance, establishing relationships with other influential colleagues has been identified as an important way individuals develop leadership capabilities (Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McCall et al., 1988; McCallum & O'Connell, 2009; McCauley, Kanaga, & Lafferty, 2010; Murphy & Gibson, 2017; Wilson & Van Velsor, 2011). Developmental relationships frequently target the particular needs of individuals (Leskiw & Singh, 2007) and incorporate a wide range of methods, including mentors, coaches, peer learning support, social identity networks and communities of practice (McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty, 2010, p. 45), with coaching and mentoring being the most common form of training (Hernez-Broome & Hughes, 2004;

Leskiw & Singh, 2007). Forming relationships in order to facilitate a leader's learning and development is critical because such relationships provide a valuable supply of assessment, challenge and support (McCauley & Douglas, 2004; McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty, 2010). Rather than being dependent upon a single mentor or superior for development, individuals cultivate a network of relationships on which they derive support, guidance and assistance (Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McCauley & Douglas, 2004).

## 2.12 Conclusion

This chapter summarises the general literature associated with leadership and leadership development. Key issues which emerged from the review highlighted the lack of consensus regarding definitions of leadership and leadership development, together with the critical importance of considering context when investigating these theoretical domains. An overview of various theories' approaches and styles associated with leadership were presented, the terms "leadership" and "management" were distinguished and the impact of organisational culture on leadership was highlighted. An introduction was provided concerning key concepts associated with leadership development, including critical strategic issues which impact on leadership development within organisations. The terms "leader development" and "leadership development" were distinguished and defined. A brief discussion of how learning theories are linked to leadership development was presented, together with an overview of models, frameworks and methods associated with developing leaders. This chapter sets the foundation for the following chapter, which introduces the police context and reviews the literature on leadership and leadership development in the field of policing.

# Chapter 3. Literature Review: Leadership and Leadership Development in Policing

## 3.1 Police Leadership

A review of the academic literature reveals policing is a multi-faceted and complex field that has been the subject of intense scholarly interest in the last three decades or so. In the following discussion, an overview will be presented of contemporary issues impacting police organisations, including various forces, changing roles and models linked to policing. The unique contextual milieu of policing will be previewed including organisational structures, the reform movement and the resultant impact on police leaders.

### 3.1.1 Introduction to Policing

The origins of modern day policing can be traced back to 1829 with the formation of the London Metropolitan Police (Auten, 1981; Gaunt, 2014; Neyroud, 2011), when Sir Robert Peel, a conservative politician, founded contemporary policing (Dempsey & Forst, 2011). Policing has been depicted within scholarly writings as dangerous, unpredictable (see Evans & Coman, 1993; Fyfe, 1996; Schaible & Gecas, 2010) and uncontrollable (see Crank, 2014; Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001). Another attribute commonly ascribed to policing is high levels of complexity (Bayley, 2016; Goldstein, 1990; Herrington & Colvin, 2015; More, 1998; Schuck & Rabe-Hemp, 2018), which contributes to making the police leader's role particularly challenging (Batts, Smoot, & Scrivner, 2012; Herrington & Colvin, 2015; Moggré, den Boer, & Fyfe, 2017). The "unique" or "special" nature of police work, compared to most other forms of work, has also been emphasised in the literature (see Cockcroft, 2014; Dick, 2010; Dunham & Alpert, 2010; Herbert, 1996; Kroes, 1976; Smith, 2005; Sykes, 1985; Walker & Archbold, 2013). The following discussion will describe major forces impacting contemporary police organisations and their leaders.

### 3.1.2 Forces Impacting Contemporary Policing

Policing, like other occupations, has been shaped by various forces, but the intensity of those forces is perhaps greater here than in other professions. For instance, contemporary policing is impacted by a diverse array of local, national and international legal and policy influences (Dupont, Manning, & Whelan, 2017), as well as social forces (Bradley, 2012; Fleming & Hall, 2008; Thorne, 2003), shifting demographics (Bentz, 1995; Enter, 1991; Fleming & Hall, 2008; Murray, 2000; Sklansky, 2006), growing globalisation (Batts et al., 2012; Bowling, 2009), changing crime patterns (Batts et al., 2012; Bayley & Shearing, 2001; Bittner, 1970), expanding private security industry (Bayley, 1994; Bayley & Shearing, 2001; Jones & Newburn, 2002), increasing fiscal constraints (Batts et al., 2012; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Jackson, 2015; Meaklim & Sims, 2011) and the prevailing presence of technology (Batts et al., 2012; Bentz, 1995; Bryett & Harrison, 1994; Chan, 2001; Fleming & Hall, 2008; Murray, 2000; Rogers & Frevel, 2018; Thorne, 2003; Weiss, 2014). Police organisations are also influenced by growing politicisation (Brewer, Wilford, Guelke, Hume, & Moxon-Browne, 2016; Fyfe, Greene, Walsh, Wilson, & McLaren, 1997; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Rogers & Frevel, 2018; Savage, 2007; Walker & Archbold, 2013), increased accountability (Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Goldsmith, 2005; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Walker, 2001), a push towards increased "civilianisation" (see Cordner, 2014; Maguire, Shin, Zhao, & Hassell, 2003; Russell & MacLachlan, 1999) and a renewed emphasis on being more efficient (see Davis & Bailey, 2018; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Hoque, Arends, & Alexander, 2004; Kiedrowski, Ruddell, & Petrunik, 2017; Marks & Fleming, 2004; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Ratcliffe, 2003). Rogers and Frevel (2018, p. 1) predict that future police structures and practices will continue to be fashioned by diverse forces, including "social, political, economic, technological, environmental and legal". Multiple forces create a constantly shifting police landscape, which impacts on models, approaches and styles associated with policing

(Watson, 2018). Attention will now turn to the changing police role together with evolving organisational structures and associated reform.

### 3.1.3 Changing Police Role

Various influences, previously highlighted, have combined to impact the role performed by police. For instance, traditionally police agencies have tended to adopt more of a narrow "crime-fighting" role (Cordner, 2014; Deakin, 1988; Morris, Heal, & Britain, 1981; Paoline, 2004). However, the police role has become increasingly complex (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Hansson, Hurtig, Lauritz, & Padyab, 2017; Prenzler, Martin, & Sarre, 2010; Shane, 2010a) and broader in scope (Bond, Murphy, & Porter, 2015; Herrington & Pope, 2014; Tyler & Jackson, 2014). Police organisations have evolved from being traditionally insular and closed organisations to being more open, transparent and accountable, which has impacted on the role of police leaders (Fleming & Hall, 2008). The increasing complexity of police work coupled with fiscal constraints has placed significant pressures on police leaders, necessitating a broader suite of leadership skills (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Neyroud, 2011). The police role involves diverse tasks where officers must lead from the front, assume command and control and make critical decisions within a highly self-directed environment (Sommerfeldt, 2010). The changing role of police, reflected in evolving organisational structures and fuelled by a myriad of forces and reform measures, will be explored in the following discussion in Section 3.1.4.

### 3.1.4 Organisational Structures

Police organisations, described as paramilitary in nature (Bazemore & Griffiths, 2003; Das, 1986; Maguire, 1997; Roberg, 1994), are characterised by a rigid hierarchical rank-based structure (Adlam, 1999; Chan, 1996; Cox, 2011; King, 2005) where officers are bound by strict adherence to numerous rules and regulations (Adlam, 1999; Bayley, 2002; Correia,

2000; Manning, 1996). In the past, police agencies have been principally organised on authoritarian, paramilitary principles, controlled through strict adherence to organisational policy, procedures and legislation, with a focus on internal and vertical lines of communication (Fleming & Rhodes, 2004). However, over time, the viability of traditional paramilitary and hierarchical structures within democratic police organisations has been increasingly questioned (see Angell, 1971; Auten, 1981; Bittner, 1970; Cordner, 1978; Cox, 2011; Densten, 2003; Engel, 2001; Etter, 1993; Hodgson, 2001; King, 2003; Sandler & Mintz, 1974; Vickers & Kouzmin, 2001; Violanti & Aron, 1994; Yuille, 2012). Criticisms levelled at traditional hierarchical police structures include failure to align with modern governance principles (Clark, 2005); and its inherent inflexibility, which, among other things, impedes decision making and hinders the application of discretionary powers in complex moral dilemmas (Vickers & Kouzmin, 2001).

No discussion on police structures would be complete without reference to the rank-based system, regularly referred to within scholarly articles as “rank mentality” (see Davis, 2017; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Metcalfe & Dick, 2001; Mitchell, 2009; Silvestri, 2006, 2007). Traditionally, police leadership was premised on the military model, which presumed rank and authority were paramount and legitimised a leader’s ability to control and direct subordinate behaviour (Martin, Rogers, Samuel, & Rowling, 2017). Officers still heavily rely on the rank structure in crystallising roles and tasks and determining decision-making responsibilities (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Rank-based authority has been used by police managers to quell dissent, allowing them to facilitate their time-honoured tradition of managerial freedom (Marks & Sklansky, 2014). However, the continuing reliance on rank as a means of authority has inhibited the advancement of alternative leadership styles (College of Policing, 2015; Davis, 2017). Formal rank does not necessarily equate to a leader’s ability or skill level (Mitchell, 2009) and can stifle creativity and innovation (Davis & Bailey, 2018).

However, the positive aspects of a well-defined rank structure have been highlighted by Densten (2003, p. 409), who concluded that bureaucratic structures encouraged leaders to deal with officers based on their rank, culminating in a significant degree of homogeny across the organisation. A brief examination of reform measures which have impacted police organisational structures will be discussed next in Section 3.1.5.

### 3.1.5 Police Reform

A review of the scholarly literature reveals attempts at police reform is a prominent and recurring theme. Contemporary police organisations continue to grapple with enormous challenges, which place significant stress on institutional structures (Mitchell, 2009). These challenges include reform measures. Reform in police agencies have forced executives to revamp bureaucratic structures, including attempts to flatten organisational structures (Cordner, 2014; Etter, 1993; Greene, 2000; Maguire, 1997; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Vito, Walsh, & Kunselman, 2005); decentralise (Bolen, 1997; Cordner, 2014; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Hepworth & White, 2016; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Russell & MacLachlan, 1999; Sykes, 1985; Toch, 2008); and de-specialise functions (Cordner, 2014; Hepworth & White, 2016; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Russell & MacLachlan, 1999). Prominent police scholar Bayley (2008, p. 8) reviewed major police reforms over four decades and classified them into three major categories: (i) strategies (community orientated policing and problem orientated policing), (ii) standards (internal discipline and external accountability); and (iii) management (computer driven crime analysis and diversity measures).

Despite Bayley's (2008) analysis being US-focused, the three categories can be broadly applied within western police agencies more broadly, including Australia. Concerning "strategies", community policing persuaded police departments to rethink their traditional hierarchical and bureaucratic models and advance towards flatter structures (Engel, 2001).

Problem orientated policing changed the way police structured their operational response to crime (Braga, 2007). Regarding "standards", one of the primary drivers of reform with police organisations has been corruption scandals (see Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Moggré et al., 2017), resulting in the imposition of external accountability measures. For instance, within Queensland, the watershed Fitzgerald Report found a "politicised and moribund public service not subject to review or accountability mechanisms" (Lewis, Ransley, & Homel, 2010, p. 13), which led to the imposition of external supervision in the formation of the Criminal Justice Commission (CJC) to oversee police misconduct (Prenzler, 2011). With respect to "management", Bayley's (2008) references to management reforms were heavily favoured by the US policing context and failed to highlight new public sector management reforms, which, consistent with scholarly interest, appear more prominent within UK and Australian police agencies. As part of the public sector reforms, police organisations in many western democracies have been forced to compress organisational structures (Meaklim & Sims, 2011) and "modernise" and restructure their organisations with stronger emphasis on increasing operational performance, efficiency and cost effectiveness in an effectual way (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Marks & Fleming, 2004).

Police organisations have been caught up in the broader new public sector management (NPM) reform movement, which has included the adoption of practices focusing on results-driven outcomes (see Barzelay, 2001; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Hoque et al., 2004; Hough, 2010; Mann, 2016), with renewed focus on cost efficiency and administrative accountability (Fleming & Lafferty, 2001). Failures and problems associated with introducing NPM in policing have been highlighted (see Barzelay, 2001; Hough, 2010) and, compared to other public sector agencies, police have been more staunchly resistant to reform attempts (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Knight, 2014). The skill sets of police leaders have been found wanting, necessitating training and development interventions to enhance leadership standards

(Golding & Savage, 2011; The Home Office, 2004). Scholarly research emanating from the US and United Kingdom revealed a number of reform attempts to reduce the size of police structures, with many police agencies still resembling large bureaucracies, with the primary organising principle rooted in rigid hierarchical rank-based structures (Ackroyd, Soothill, Harper, Hughes, & Shapiro, 1992; Guyot, 1979; Whittred, 2008). A review of Australian police agencies' official websites reflected a similar picture in terms of bureaucratic structures. No police agency in Australia has escaped public sector reforms; however, organisational structures have steadfastly remained largely intact and continue to resemble hierarchical rank-based configurations.

The structures of police organisations, coupled with on-going reform, places unique challenges on its leaders. For instance, the organisational structure of policing is characterised by a hierarchically-organised and highly bureaucratic nature that resists change (Baker, 2011) and places constraints and obstacles on a leader's capacity (Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996). Contemporary senior police officers must lead complex bureaucracies and deal with growing uncertainty and an increasingly politicised law enforcement agenda (Casey & Mitchell, 2007). Senior leaders are also confronted with a progressively more complex and formidable environment, which is layered by burgeoning levels of accountability, with an increasingly demanding and diverse group of stakeholders (van Dijk, Hoogewoning, & Punch, 2015). Reform efforts to flatten and streamline police organisations and their accompanying structures have not necessarily altered the leadership behaviours of contemporary managers (Marks & Sklansky, 2008). Problems associated with introducing police reform have been attributed to poor leadership (Mazerolle, Darroch, & White, 2013), with managers steadfastly clinging to more traditional or orthodox leadership styles in preference to contemporary leadership behaviours (Fleming & Rhodes, 2005; Marks & Sklansky, 2008; Silvestri, 2007).

The necessity to drive change and bring about organisational reform has broadened the critical skills required of police leaders, particularly during turbulent and dynamic times (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Flynn & Herrington, 2015). The changing policing environment and philosophies have impacted on the way police train and educate their officers (Hudson, 2014), including the drive by police organisations to find new and enhanced education and training practices (Bradley, 2012). Therefore, contextual theories of leadership previously explored in this discussion have an obvious place in the study of police leadership. Within an Australian policing context, the influential report in work practices within the Victoria Police found future policing needs to be flexible and responsive to rapidly changing contexts (Office of Police, 2010). Substantial change can be achieved within police establishments and is contingent upon the quality of police leadership driving the reform (Schafer, 2009).

Reform measures in policing have influenced and shaped policing models. For instance, police agencies have typically adopted conventional, traditional organisational models characterised by specialist units and governing bodies through a set of geographically defined boundaries, including police regions, districts and divisions (Murray, 2000; QPS., 2015a; Stone & Travis, 2013). The literature revealed pressures associated with increased accountability, linked with on-going public sector reforms interspersed with corruption scandals, spawned wide-sweeping organisational reform measures in police organisations. For instance, Queensland and New South Wales police organisations were subjected to a raft of public sector reforms in the 1980s, resulting in the flattening of rank structures, decentralisation of decision making and “doing more with less” (Fleming & Lafferty, 2001, p. 165).

Reform measures described in Section 3.5.1 have challenged the wisdom of conventional police models, forcing them to become more efficient, effective and results orientated. This

reform movement spawned more contemporary approaches and proactive policing models, including community based policing (see Friedmann, 1992; Greene & Mastrofski, 1988; Johnson, 2017; Schanzer, Kurzman, Toliver, & Miller, 2018; Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990) and its close cousin, problem orientated policing (Farrell & Sousa, 2001; Goldstein, 1990; Scott, 2017; Walker & Archbold, 2013). More recently, popular models included evidence based policing (Bullock & Tilley, 2009; Lum & Koper, 2017; Sherman, 2013; Smith, 2017; Willis & Mastrofski, 2018) and intelligence-led policing (Cope, 2004; Peterson, 2005; Ratcliffe, 2016; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Government-imposed reforms on police agencies have led to the adoption of community orientated, intelligence driven and problem orientated strategies aimed at replacing traditional reactive crime fighting responses to more proactive approaches to policing (Tilley, 2008). The unique police context in which leaders operate has drawn significant scholarly attention. A brief description of the policing context will be presented in the ensuing analysis, including organisational structures and reform, discretion, accountability, culture, police unions and professionalism.

### 3.1.6 Policing in Context

No discussion on policing would be complete without reference to the contextual variables, which arguably sets police work apart from other occupations. The context of policing, in brief, is an unusual juxtaposition between crime and the law; one highly unstructured and persistent, and the other relatively fixed and inflexible. The scholarly literature not surprisingly acknowledges the unique or distinctive nature of policing (see Cockcroft, 2014; Dick, 2010; Dunham & Alpert, 2010; Herbert, 1996; Kroes, 1976; Smith, 2005; Sykes, 1985; van Dijk et al., 2015; Walker & Archbold, 2013). The general power to use legitimate force and coercive authority distinguishes police work from other occupations (see Cioccarelli, 1989; Dunham & Alpert, 2010; Klockars, 1985; Paoline, 2003). Police work can be both complex and sensitive in nature, when mundane and routine work can suddenly be

transformed into life-threatening and volatile circumstances (Andersson Arnten, Jansson, Olsen, & Archer, 2017). As previously highlighted, police work has been depicted as highly complex (see Herrington, 2015; More, 1998; Vanebo, Bjørkelo, & Aaserud, 2015), which, among other things, makes the police leader's role extremely challenging (Batts et al., 2012). However, to date, police leadership studies have failed to properly explore the extent to which leadership has been impacted by police context (Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017). The role of police leaders has been influenced and shaped by the unique policing context. As previously alluded, the police leader's role is especially challenging due to the distinctive nature of police work and the diffuse environments in which officers are required to operate (Brown, 1998; Schafer, 2009). High ranking police leaders are subjected to long working hours and heavy workloads (Davies, 2000; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). A significant portion of a senior leader's time is consumed with people management issues, including performance management, discipline, grievances, welfare and training and development issues (Rainguet & Dodge, 2001). The critical role police leaders play in facilitating organisational change has been emphasised (see Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Haake, Rantatalo, & Lindberg, 2017; Silvestri, 2007; Skogan, 2008), including the need to engender a positive ethical culture (see Silvestri, 2007).

The role of senior police leaders has morphed from that of the archetype military commander to more of a business leader, teacher or coach, who motivates, educates or negotiates outcomes (Mastrofski, 2018). In the future, the role of top police leaders is more likely to be focused on creating a work environment that empowers followers to thrive and flourish (Martin et al., 2017). Scholarly writings concerning police leadership have generally neglected to emphasise the critical importance of "political and social content and the external environment in which police leaders operate" (Fleming & Hall, 2013, p. 165).

The context of police work has been distinguished from other occupations by the significant amount of discretion officers' exercise in their daily duties (see Ariel et al., 2016; Goldstein, 1977; Hays, Regoli, & Hewitt, 2007; Kelling, 1999; Lundman, 1979; Ryan, 1996). Policing scholars argue that the nature of policing necessitates officers to undertake their role with independence, which requires the use of discretion (QPS., 2015a; Tyler, Callahan, & Frost, 2007). The extent of this discretion presents significant challenges for police leaders. For example, Lundman (1979, p. 160) observes that "the work of the patrol officer is unsupervised and, to a lesser extent, it is unsupervisable". How this discretion is exercised and controlled underpins police functioning (Kelling, 1999) and police organisational legitimacy (Tasdoven & Kapucu, 2013). Broad discretionary powers possessed by police can have a dramatic impact on the community they serve. Therefore, officers need to be held accountable when carrying out these powers (Hays et al., 2007).

Police context can also be characterised by the burgeoning layers of accountability involved. The critical need for police accountability has been stressed in the literature (see Cooper, 2018; Currie, DeKeseredy, & MacLean, 1990; McLaughlin, 2005; Punch, 2009; Simmons, 2009; Walker & Archbold, 2013). Traditionally, police officers were provided basic accoutrements, including their badge and firearm, and dispatched unsupervised to the front line. This outmoded leadership approach, devoid of proper accountability mechanisms, manifested itself in numerous abuses of power, including misconduct and corrupt practices (Hays et al., 2007). More recent accountability methods include the use of body worn cameras or videos (Coudert, Butin, & Le Métayer, 2015; QPS., 2015b) and new technological advancements, such as "early warning" or "early intervention systems" which have made police leaders more accountable for their performance (Stroshine, 2015).

The link between the lack of appropriate accountability measures and inappropriate behaviour or misconduct has also been highlighted (Walker & Archbold, 2013), together with defective police accountability structures and models which limit police accountability (Cooper, 2018). The extreme powers bestowed upon police necessitate high levels of accountability (Stenning, 2000), including controls over use of force (Alpert & Dunham, 2004; Walker, 2001; Walker & Archbold, 2013). Accountability in policing is a wide-ranging and complex phenomenon (Walker & Archbold, 2013) and requires police leaders to devise a myriad of strategies to achieve the best framework for managing accountability (Stone, 2007).

The police context is also characterised by the persuasive influence of police unions. Police unions (or associations) have invariably wielded considerable influence on police agencies (Fleming & Hall, 2013; Marks, 2007; Marks & Fleming, 2006; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Walker, 2008), evidenced in Australia where 99% of police officers have union membership (Burgess, Fleming, & Marks, 2006). The power of police unions is particularly evident during attempts at organisational reform (Fisk & Richardson, 2017; Hays et al., 2007), together with the significant influence on broader management decisions (Evans, 2010; More, 1992; Walker, 2008). The positive and negative impact unions have had on change and reform in police organisations has been debated in the literature (see Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Marks, 2007; Walker, 2008). In general, unions have strongly resisted reform attempts by senior police (Fleming & Lafferty, 2000), with their actions being described as "reactionary and defensive" in terms of workplace reform (Sklansky & Marks, 2008). Police unions have also staunchly defended traditional notions of police professionalism and orthodox police practices (Marks, 2007), and are noted for possessing an ill-defined concept of police professionalism (Burgess et al., 2006). Today, police unions, as industrial organisations, remain a potent force in terms of enhancing members' material benefits

(Evans, 2010), as evidenced by the necessity of police leaders to consult with union officials in order to enhance the likely success of administrative reforms (Fleming, 1995; Fleming & Hall, 2013; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000).

Police context also needs to be understood in relation to the arguably unique culture (see Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1997; Cockcroft, 2014; Crank, 2014; Jones, 1995; Paoline, Myers, & Worden, 2000; Woody, 2005) that exists within policing. Scholars have emphasised that police culture is rule bound (see Bayley, 2002; Quinton, Myhill, Bradford, Fildes, & Porter, 2015) and resistant to organisational reform (see Cockcroft, 2014; Davis & Bailey, 2018; Keelty, 2013). Reforms also have to penetrate several layers of not only the dominant organisational culture (see Jermier, Slocum, Fry, & Gaines, 1991), but also the so-called "police sub-culture" (see Marks, 2007; Marks & Fleming, 2006; Walker, 2008). There is an exaggerated sense of perceiving police work as a mission (see Bacon, 2014; Bradford & Quinton, 2014; Crank, 2014; Hesketh, Cooper, & Ivy, 2018; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Prenzler, 1997; Waddington, 1999). Many scholars recognise the macho police culture reflected in strong masculine images that permeate the organisation (see Brown, 2007; Chan, 1996; Dick & Jankowicz, 2001; Fielding, 1994; Henry, 1995; James & Warren, 1995; Loftus, 2009; Prenzler, 1997; Silvestri, 2007; Waddington, 1999), and fuelled by a male-dominated bias against female officers (Brown, 2007; Brown, Campbell, & Fife-Schaw, 1995; Dick & Jankowicz, 2001; More, 1992; Rabe-Hemp, 2008).

Another prominent aspect of police culture that has been stressed is the tendency for police to demonstrate intense loyalty to fellow officers and peer groups (see Crank, 2014; Goldsmith, 1990; Lawson, 2016; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Paoline, 2003, 2004; Paoline et al., 2000; Westmarland, 2005) together with characteristic displays of defensive solidarity, particularly within groups where officers form strong and intense bonds with peers (Bellingham, 2000;

Chan, 1996; Crank, 2014; Fielding, 1994; Goldsmith, 1990; Lawson, 2016; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Pogrebin & Poole, 1991; Punch, 2000; Waddington, 1999; Westmarland, 2005). Police solidarity can lead officers to feel socially isolated from the broader society (Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1997; Loftus, 2009; Mastrofski & Willis, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Nhan, 2014; Paoline et al., 2000; Prenzler, 1997; Reiner, 2010; Woody, 2005)**.**

Another aspect of police culture is the tendency for police to possess strongly conservative attitudes and views (see Bellingham, 2000; James & Warren, 1995; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Reiner, 2010) and deeply entrenched cynicism (Bellingham, 2000; Cochran & Bromley, 2003; Graves, 1996; Loftus, 2009, 2010; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Nhan, 2014; Prenzler, 1997; Waddington, 1999). In a similar vein, police possess a prevailing pessimistic attitude (Loftus, 2010; Reiner, 2010) accompanied by an inherently suspicious nature (Bellingham, 2000; Chan, 1996; Kingshott, Bailey, & Wolfe, 2004; Loftus, 2009; Myhill & Bradford, 2013; Reiner, 2010).

Another defining element of police culture is the so-called divide between “management cops” verses “street cops”, which has been well documented in the literature (see Crank, 1998; Dantzker, 2000; Densten, 2003; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Reuss-Ianni, 2011; Reuss-Ianni & Ianni, 1983). In addition, there is regular references to “street culture” in policing (see Mittleman, 2004; Reuss-Ianni, 2011; Van Maanen, 1984), which involves all officers, regardless of rank, needing to serve some time on the street in order to be considered “street cred” (Van Maanen, 1984, p. 146). It is evident that police culture impacts considerably on how police leaders develop and operate (Poitras, 2017) by constraining the capacity to enforce compliance to the pervasive police culture (Jermier et al., 1991; Marks, 2007).

Police context is also characterised by the paradox that police work is essentially an applied art as opposed to a science, and a trade as opposed to a profession. Scholarly discourse has subsequently centred on the need to transform policing into a true profession (see Shusta, Levine, Harris, & Wong, 2002; Sklansky, 2014; Stone & Travis, 2013). Various reforms have been attempted to achieve true police professional status, including more rigorous selection methods (Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013); improved accreditation (Carter & Sapp, 1994; Felkenes, 1980; McCabe & Fajardo, 2001; Schneider, 2009); higher standards of police education (see Hays et al., 2007; Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013; Trofymowych, 2008); and enhanced training (Regolil & Poole, 1980; Schneider, 2009; Stone & Travis, 2013). More recent attempts to promote policing from blue collar status to a fully-fledged profession describe the "new professionalism" as comprising four key components – "accountability, legitimacy, innovation and national coherence" (see Flynn & Herrington, 2015, p. 5; Stone & Travis, 2013). The "new professionalism" has also been reflected in the increased focus by police organisations on leadership development and management development programs (Council of Canadian Academies, 2014).

Debate over the need for police officers to be college educated gained prominence in the US as early as the 1960s (Roberg & Bonn, 2004) and this discourse continues today (see Roberg & Bonn, 2004; Trofymowych, 2008). Various attempts at improving professionalism in policing appear to have had chequered success, with many pundits declaring the occupation has yet to achieve true professional status (see Bayley, 2016; Neyroud & Weisburd, 2014; Villiers, 2003). Villiers (2003, p. 15) argued that in order for policing to be universally recognised as a profession, agreement needs to be reached in two critical areas: consensus on a clearly articulated "philosophy of policing", and an agreed style of leadership considered appropriate for policing.

The previous discussion focused on the police context by presenting key elements, which arguably make policing unique. Building upon earlier discussion, which highlighted that leadership is influenced and shaped by context, the ensuing discussion will outline the field of police leadership, including definitions, roles, models, frameworks, theories and leadership styles, together with key attributes and behaviours that characterise good leaders. The following discussion in Section 3.1.7 will conclude by briefly describing leadership in the Australian police environments.

### 3.1.7 Leadership in Policing

The importance of effective leadership within police organisations has been emphasised (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Densten, 1999, 2003; Di Grazia, 1976; Gibson & Villiers, 2006; Macdonald, 1995; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; Rowe, 2006; Schafer, 2009), particularly in terms of achieving organisational performance (Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Macdonald, 1995; Schafer, 2008, 2009) and facilitating organisational change (Densten, 1999, 2003; Golding & Savage, 2011; Schafer, 2009).

A review of the scholarly works on policing reveals the theoretical frameworks and applied models associated with leadership are still very much in their infancy. Although research in police leadership has increased (Andreescu & Vito, 2010), there is still a relative paucity of empirically based research in this area (Mastrofski, 2006; Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2010a; Silvestri, 2006). Scholarly writings in the field of leadership in policing are overly descriptive in nature (Mitchell, 2009; Neyroud, 2011; Schafer, 2008), heavily reliant upon "anecdotes and case studies" (Schafer, 2008, p. 13) and premised upon potentially incompatible organisational contexts (Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2008). Despite the central importance of leadership within police organisations, most scholarly writings in this area rely on research derived from other professions, particularly military and corporate environments

(Schafer, 2008). To what degree these "borrowed" contexts are applicable to the police environment is arguable. Studies of police leadership tend to emphasise celebrity police executives (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Mastrofski, 2006; Schafer, 2009) and focus on leadership styles and behaviours (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Densten, 2003; Girodo, 1998; Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Krimmel & Lindenmuth, 2001; Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982; Rowe, 2006; Vito & Higgins, 2010). Despite the acknowledged importance of effective leadership within police agencies, very little is known about the process of developing effective leaders (Bragg, 2013; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a).

This research will also explore how context impacts upon the ability of officers to enhance their leadership, principally in terms of challenge, feedback and support. Scholarly writings have neglected to provide evidence into how context makes leadership development meaningful (Hamilton & Bean, 2005). Furthermore, there is a relative paucity of scholarly investigation into the impact that the environmental context within police organisations has on leadership (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Fleming & Hall, 2008). This is particularly apparent when exploring leadership within the "cultural and occupational context of policing" (Schafer, 2009, p. 240) and when providing insight into how police leaders learn leadership (Edwards, Elliott, Iszatt-White, and Schedlitzki, 2013).

Despite numerous attempts, scholars have failed to reach consensus on a universal or clear definition of police leadership (Caless & Tong, 2017; Davis, 2017; Golding & Savage, 2011; McCarthy, 2012), although one of the hallmarks of police leadership literature (and practice) is the powerful tradition of favouring management over leadership (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Schafer, 2009; Vito, Suresh, & Richards, 2011). Davis (2017, p. 30) contends that leadership in policing presents a challenging paradox as an "institutionalised social status … both the

source and solution to organisational problems" while Murphy and Drodge (2004, p. 1) argue that leadership in policing is a social process which is contextually situated and influenced by various mediating factors including that "emotions, actions, personality factors, and contextual conditions coalesce".

Whether the context of policing can be sufficiently distinguished from other organisations to warrant a unique style of leadership (or "police leadership") remains contested terrain within scholarly circles. Schafer (2010b, p. 738), for instance, noted the distinctive features of policing that affected leadership included the critical importance of ethics and integrity, structural constraints limiting close supervision and the "geographically diffuse nature of police work environments". Premised on these differing contextual aspects, Schafer (2010b) questioned the applicability of existing theories and the framework based on corporate style environments to policing. Some researchers have gone a step further (see Adlam, 2000; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Densten, 1999; Schafer, 2009), arguing that the distinct contextual characteristics associated with policing demand a unique style of leadership. In contrast, Blair (2003) questioned whether police leadership is truly unlike styles adopted in other organisational contexts. While possessing some unique features, policing also shares common elements with other organisations (Caless & Tong, 2017). No systematic analysis appears to have been undertaken to support the contention that "police leadership" is different or unique from other forms of leadership (Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017). Despite various interpretations, attempts to clearly articulate "police leadership" remain elusive (Adlam, 2000, 2002; Davis, 2017; Maciha, 2014) and warrant further investigation (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Schafer, 2010b). Having explored various definitions of police leadership, attention now turns to briefly reviewing leadership theories associated with policing.

Various theories associated with police leadership can be located within scholarly writings; however, the extant literature appears to be lacking in any empirically tested theory or conceptual construct. A number of conventional or mainstream theories have been applied to examine police leadership, including behavioural, situational and transformation theories (see Davis, 2017; Wright, Alison, & Crego, 2008). There is also a recognition that leadership in policing is influenced by theories associated with social constructionism (see Davies & Thomas, 2003; Davis & Bailey, 2018), which acknowledges that leadership is not an independent construct detached from the social environs, but impacted on by "social interaction and discourses" (Davis & Bailey, 2018, p. 15).

One commonly-cited theory within scholarly writings contends that every officer, regardless of rank, is a leader (see Anderson, 1999; Fisher, Weir, & Phillips, 2014; Jordan, 2014; Kingshott, 2006; Schafer, 2008; Villiers, 2003; Vito et al., 2011), and is premised on the belief that all officers need to undertake some type of leadership activity in the course of their duties (Kingshott, 2006; Ramsey & Robinson, 2015). In terms of development, the theory involves training being offered regardless of rank as some officers may only show leadership potential after being exposed to developmental efforts (Schafer, 2008).

As previously highlighted, despite numerous attempts scholars have failed to reach consensus on a universal definition of police leadership (Golding & Savage, 2011), including what critical competencies are necessary in effective police leaders (see Anderson, 1999; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017). The disparate leadership theories associated with policing are most likely linked to the lack of consensus within the literature regarding a clearly defined and understood definition of police leadership. In summary, despite the various leadership theories proffered in the literature, no single approach adequately reflects the contextual diversity present in police environments (Wright et al., 2008). This thesis is centred on the

development of leadership and more precisely perceptions of development. No attempt was made to impose a single 'universal' definition of police leadership because after reviewing the data, it is evident multiple definitions are being operationalised.

#### *3.1.7.1 Leadership Models or Frameworks*

An examination of the broader literature on policing highlights the diverse array of theoretical models and frameworks associated with police leadership. However, consistent with the lack of a commonly agreed definition of police leadership, the scholarly literature appears bereft of any empirically tested police leadership model or framework (Fleming & Hall, 2008). Earlier leadership models linked to policing were predicated on military autocratic styles (see Auten, 1981; Jermier & Berkes, 1979) and command and control styles (Loveday, 2006; Reiss & Bordua, 1964), while some more contemporary police leadership models are aligned with their public sector counterparts (QPS., 2014a ).

The legitimacy of conventional policing models have been questioned (Cowper, 2000), and organisations have attempted to predicate police leadership on contemporary problem orientated policing approaches (Mazerolle et al., 2013) or popular leadership styles (Anderson, Gisborne, & Holliday, 2006). Notwithstanding the lack of consensus regarding an agreed leadership model in policing, agencies have instead opted to develop their own models, tailored to suit specific organisational needs. A comparison of five police leadership frameworks/models (see Table 3.1) spanning England, US and Australia reveals little uniformity or consistency. Instead, a patchwork approach emerges predicated on a diverse array of criteria encapsulating competency levels, core values, steps, principles and core capabilities. The lack of consistency in the composition of police frameworks/models is hardly surprising, considering the importance of context and differing reform measures each western country has experienced. In summary, disparity in leadership frameworks and

models, highlighted in Table 3.1, echoes previous observations regarding the lack of agreed definition of police leadership.

## Table 3.1 Six Police Leadership Frameworks/Models

| Name | Key components or elements | Source |
|---|---|---|
| **Integrated Competency Framework (ICF) UK** | **Five Levels of Leadership**<br>• Leading by example<br>• Others<br>• Teams<br>• Units<br>• Organisations | Gibson and Villiers (2006) |
| **Core values—Police leadership model UK** | **Leadership model comprises four core values of strategic police leaders:**<br>• Future focus<br>• Authenticity<br>• Performance<br>• Collaboration | Chalk & Burgersdijl (2013) (as cited in Caless & Tong, 2015, p. 64) |
| **Transforming Leadership Process Model USA** | **A six-step model which seeks to enhance personal development in attaining the organisation's vision:**<br>• Envisioning—described the need and concept for the future.<br>• Planning—creating the goals and steps to attain the vision.<br>• Teaming: delegating key responsibilities.<br>• Motivating: progression of self-motivation, expectations of success.<br>• Evaluating—review accomplishments.<br>• Recycling—the decision-making loop is repeated allowing additional evaluation and learning. | (Anderson et al., 2006) |
| **International Association of Chiefs of Police leadership Model USA** | **Nine Principles:**<br>Leader development process is career long.<br>• Agencies require a leadership system.<br>• Leader development needs to be on-going and sequential.<br>• Fundamental leadership practices differ according to the level in the organisation.<br>• Leaders are responsible for developing subordinates.<br>• Senior leaders need to cultivate a dispersed leadership culture throughout the organisationLeader development equates with knowledge, skills attitudes, values and beliefs being transformed.<br>• Tailored development approaches need to target various areas in need of development.<br>• Leader development process involves: structured training; in-house development; on-the-job learning and self-development; and<br>• Self-development involves a combination of researching, reflecting and interacting with peers. | Adapted from Maciha (2014) |
| **Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM) Leadership Capability Framework** | **The framework drawn from three areas**:<br>The Australian and New Zealand Police Leadership Capability Framework, The Australian Public Service Commissioned Senior Executive Leadership Capability Framework and the training and education guidelines of the Australian and New Zealand Police Advisory Agency (ANZPAA) comprising:<br>• Shapes strategic direction<br>• Achieves results | Herrington (2017, p. 820) |

| Name | Key components or elements | Source |
|---|---|---|
| | • Builds and manages relationships<br>• Communicates with influence<br>• Personal Drive and integrity | |
| **Queensland Police Service Leadership Framework (QPSLF) (five core capabilities)** | **The framework is equivalent to the Queensland Public Service Capability and Leadership Framework (CLF) and comprises five core capabilities for commissioned officers (Inspector—Chief Superintendent ranks):**<br>• Shapes strategic direction<br>• Achieves results<br>• Cultivates productive working relationships<br>• Exemplifies personal drive and integrity<br>• Communicates with influence | (QPS., 2014a ) |

### 3.1.8 Role of Senior Police Leaders

Aside from narratives on how popular police chiefs have risen to the top, the topic of senior leaders in policing has failed to attract scholarly interest. For example, despite the obvious importance of the role of senior police, there is a relative paucity of empirical research on leaders occupying the upper echelons of police organisations (Densten, 1999, 2003). Contemporary police organisations can no longer afford to be introspective about the way they do business. For instance, police researchers have described how modern-day policing is becoming increasingly international or transnational (see Newburn, 2008; Walker, 2008). These various forces have impacted on the role of senior police leaders, emphasising the need for such leaders to focus on creating and promoting the organisation's vision; setting the strategic direction; developing strategic goals; and collaborating and empowering officers by delegating responsibilities (Vito et al., 2011). The role of senior police leaders has transitioned over recent decades from one rooted in traditional command and control styles to a more bureaucratic approach enveloping "managerialist" philosophies incorporating a strategic outlook (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Officers at senior levels in policing need to be equipped with the necessary leadership skills to properly deal with the turbulent environment and the demands of contemporary policing that are constantly changing (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Morreale & Ortmeier, 2004). The need to develop leaders becomes evident at more senior levels of policing, as officers transition into management roles and then on to executive level positions (Flynn & Herrington, 2015). Senior police leaders also perform a critical role in leadership development by ensuring that contemporary learning practices are thoroughly entrenched throughout the entire police agency (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Herrington & Colvin, 2015). Building on the previous discussions involving the role of senior police leaders, the following section, Section 3.1.8.1, will briefly examine different styles of police

leadership and conclude by briefly touching on the debate surrounding the existence of a winning style of police leadership.

#### *3.1.1.1 Leadership Styles*

Not unlike attempts to define police leadership, efforts to identify an appropriate leadership style in policing continues to be a vexed issue within scholarly circles. Notwithstanding, some scholarly discourse has focussed on different leadership styles in policing (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013), including systematic literature reviews (see Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Dobby et al., 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013) examining the connection between different styles of police leadership and the effectiveness of police leaders. As previously noted in Section 3.7.1 Blair (2003) queried whether leadership in policing is markedly different to styles applied in other organisational contexts. In contrast other researchers contend police leadership is a distinct and complex undertaking (see Adlam, 2000; Densten, 1999; Schafer, 2009). The following discussion will briefly describe three frequently cited leadership styles within the scholarly extant literature linked with policing: autocratic, transactional, transformational and mixed leadership styles.

Police operate within well-defined organisational structures characterised by bureaucratic processes and hierarchical rank-based reporting systems (Densten, 2003; QPS., 2015a; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Leadership styles adopted by police have been contingent upon hierarchical, bureaucratic and paramilitary policing structures which have traditionally tended to favour autocratic and authoritarian styles of leadership (Vito et al. 2011). Autocratic leaders are likely to focus on accountability (Kuykendall & Unsinger, 1982) and tend to be quick decision makers, particularly in dynamic operational environments (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Kingshott, 2006). However, criticisms have been levelled at the effectiveness of autocratic leadership styles in policing, including an over-reliance on rigid “quasi-military”

structures (Campbell & Kodz, 2011), strong adherence to rules and regulations (Marks & Sklansky, 2008) and disempowering subordinates by removing decision making (Kingshott, 2006). Traditional autocratic or authoritarian leadership styles invariably dwarf reform efforts (Phillips & Burrell, 2009), which can culminate in acrimonious relationships between police unions and administration (Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Police autocratic leaders are less inclined to properly acknowledge the efforts of subordinates (Shane, 2010b) and tend to prevent the development of alternative people-orientated leadership styles (Davis & Bailey, 2018). Evidence reveals that police leaders are not confined to autocratic styles, but instead, apply a diverse range of leadership or supervisory styles (Adlam, 2002; Schafer, 2009), including transactional leadership.

Transactional leadership is a common leadership style linked to policing (see Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Sarver & Miller, 2014; Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014) and is outcomes focused with an emphasis on using positional authority as well as rewards and punishment to achieve results (Dobby et al., 2004; Vito et al., 2014). Some positive outcomes have been associated with transactional leadership styles in policing, including subordinates being satisfied due to the predictability of the style (Densten, 1999), higher levels of appreciation and respect for leaders, and being helpful in motivating some officers (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). However, the relative merits of transactional leadership compared to other leadership styles have been debated (Neyroud, 2011) and subjected to renewed criticism (Cockcroft, 2014). This criticism includes over-reliance on correcting officer behaviours that depart from standard norms; and its time intensive nature involved in allocating rewards and dispensing discipline to subordinates (Densten, 1999; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Participatory styles of leadership in policing have received renewed interest in recent scholarly discourse (see Marks & Fleming, 2004; Silvestri, 2007), particularly transformational leadership (see Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Moggré et al., 2017; Neyroud, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Vito et al., 2014). The key characteristics associated with transformational leadership include values driven and creating a vision; support for individuals through development and on-going learning; and a focus on attaining group goals (Campbell & Kodz, 2011, p.3). Research in policing has found some links between transformational leadership and positive policing outcomes (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; de Roever, 2012; Densten, 2003; Dobby et al., 2004; Engel, 2001; Johnson, 2006; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Murphy, 2008; Singer & Singer, 1990), including enhanced officer satisfaction and commitment (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Dobby et al., 2004; Silvestri, 2007) that fosters clearer goals for individuals (Davis & Bailey, 2018) within a supportive and stable environment (Drodge & Murphy, 2002a). It has been argued that this leadership style is well suited to officers at senior levels of policing (Silvestri, 2007; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). Mastrowski (2004) noted a trend within policing for leaders to exercise more control through legitimate means and, subsequently, placing less reliance upon wielding raw power to influence officer behaviour. Police leaders demonstrating transformational behaviours were more inclined to question prevailing paradigms (Murphy, 2008). When comparing transformational leaders with transactional leaders, officers displaying transformational behaviours had more of a positive impact on officers' performance and were perceived as being more effective leaders (Lowe et al., 1996). At an emotional level, officers felt they connected easily with transformational leaders (Murphy, 2008).

Questions have been raised concerning the suitability of applying transformational leadership within a policing context (see Cockcroft, 2014; Davis, 2017; Neyroud, 2011), with claims that

more marketing hype exists than solid empirical evidence to support claims for its effectiveness (Neyroud, 2011). Concerns have been raised regarding the ability of transformational leadership to properly assimilate with police environments, which are characterised by powerful command and control elements (Neyroud, 2010) and with a strong orientation towards rank (Silvestri, 2007). In addition, research undertaken by de Roever (2012) in the QPS found that behaviours exhibited by sergeants demonstrating transformational leadership failed to have a significant positive influence on subordinates' behaviour.

While debate exists regarding the merits of transactional and transformational leadership styles in policing (Neyroud, 2010), discussion has also focused on the applicability of mixed leadership styles. Rather than adopting transformational leadership behaviours alone, some evidence supports the contention that more effective police leaders exhibit behaviours drawn from both transformational and transactional styles (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Neyroud, 2010). Alternatively, a combination of both transactional and autocratic styles of leadership has been found to be commonly used by police officers (Österlind & Haake, 2010; Silvestri, 2007). Some evidence suggests when senior police officers blend transactional leadership with a participative leadership style, a stronger team emerges coupled with enhanced consensus levels with respect to decision making (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Wheatcroft, Alison, & McGrory, 2012). Mixed leadership styles were also found to be effective within a navy training military environment, where personal hardiness was linked to a combination of transactional and autocratic leadership behaviours (see Eid, Johnsen, Bartone, & Nissestad, 2008).

The apparent failure of conventional leadership styles to address contemporary policing issues has led some scholars to investigate innovative leadership approaches (Zoller,

Normore, & McDonald, 2014). Recent scholarly interest has focused on more participative leadership styles, involving leaders actively encouraging subordinates' participation in decision making (see Baker, 2011; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008). However, participative leaders may take longer to arrive at a decision, and this has attracted criticism from some quarters of the orthodox police culture who expect leaders to be very decisive (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Silvestri, 2007). Alternatively, some researchers have discussed the appropriateness of applying a shared leadership style within policing (see Herrington & Colvin, 2015; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Pearce & Sims, 2000; Steinheider & Wuestewald, 2008; Wuestewald & Steinheider, 2006). Herrington and Colvin (2015, p. 7) described shared leadership as a "group process of shared responsibility and mutual influence in which team members lead each other towards their goals".

Adaptive leadership is another more contemporary leadership style recently linked to policing (see Etter, 2010; Zoller et al., 2014) and the public service (Jackson & Jones, 2018). Adaptive leadership is one of the leadership approaches applied for the AIPM in their executive leadership development programs (Etter, 2010). Heifetz and Linsky (2017) refer to adaptive leadership as the ability to mobilise people to confront difficult situations and thrive. The recent scholarly interest in adaptive leadership may be linked to the previously highlighted dangerous and unpredictable nature of policing necessitating leaders to be extremely adaptive and flexible to adjust to turbulent and uncontrollable environments. The extent to which the context laden nature of policing impacts on leadership approaches is evident in recent research by Davis and Bailey (2018, p. 20). These scholars found that unconventional styles of leadership involving "participatory, collaborative and relationship leadership approaches" may only be suitable in low risk controlled and predictable environments.

Establishing a winning style of leadership is compounded by challenges linking agency level outcomes to police leadership, particularly when performance indicators are impacted by numerous confounding factors (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). The body of available research on police leadership styles is largely perception based with no sound empirical evidence which articulates how the different styles of leadership make an impact on policing (Campbell & Kodz, 2011). Therefore, not surprisingly, no proven theoretical frameworks for police leadership exist (Fleming & Hall, 2008). Furthermore, there is no consensus over a "winning" or superior style of leadership, with a weak evidence base linking specific leadership styles and improved performance at an individual or organisational level (Davis, 2017; Dobby et al., 2004; Mitchell, 2009; Wright et al., 2008).

In summary, within the contextually rich environment of policing, there is "no single right way to lead and no one style of leadership which can be guaranteed to work for leaders in all circumstances" (Gibson & Villiers, 2006, p. 6). Instead, the answer lies in the ability of police officers to be flexible enough to adopt different styles of leadership to fit the various contexts within policing (Neyroud, 2010). Building upon previous discussions involving leadership styles in policing, the following discussion in Section 3.1.9 will overview scholarly literature, highlighting key attributes and behaviours that characterise good or effective police leaders.

### 3.1.9 Key Attributes and Behaviours

A tension exists within the scholarly discourse concerning the key characteristics of police leaders. One school of thought contends that such attributes and behaviours are distinct or unique to policing. The alternative view asserts that despite the differing context, police leaders exhibit characteristics akin to their corporate and public sector counterparts. A number of studies have investigated the key attributes and behaviours of police leaders (see

Beck & Wilson, 1997; Coleman, 2008; Dantzker, 1996; Dick, 2011; Gaston, 1997; Johnson, 2005; O'Leary, Resnick-Luetke, & Monk-Turner, 2011; Schafer, 2008, 2010a). However, in terms of senior police leaders, there is a lack of consensus regarding common or core or critical attributes and behaviours (Caless & Tong, 2017), together with no objective assessment concerning what is required of leaders at the upper echelons of policing (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009).

Despite the unique contextual characteristics associated with policing, research suggests that key attributes required in police leaders are not dissimilar to those found in leaders in non-police organisations (see Caless & Tong, 2017; Miller et al., 2009; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). However, some research suggests good police leaders have been found to possess a number of common or key attributes that set them apart from poor or ineffective leaders (see Schafer, 2010a, 2010b). In a relatively recent systematic review of the literature, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013, p. 2) identified seven common attributes attributed to good police leadership, namely "ethical; role models, good communicators; critical and creative thinkers, decision makers, trustworthy, and legitimate", and five typical behaviours – "problem solving, creating a shared vision, engendering organisational commitment, caring for subordinates, and driving and managing change". The following discussion in Section 3.1.9.1 will initially explore the seven key attributes identified by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013).

#### *3.1.7.2 Key Attributes*

Much of the extant literature concerning police leadership focusses on articulating key attributes and desirable behaviours of good or effective leaders. However, little empirical evidence exists to suggest any particular attribute or behaviour is more effective than any other – instead the literature relies on either loose evidence or a priori logic to make the claim.

Some of the attributes, indeed, are so loosely operationally defined as to be difficult to effectively measure – for example, 'integrity'. While all leaders need to possess integrity, not all leaders are vested with enormous legal powers and equipped with options to use lethal force while operating in such autonomous environments. Policing is an "integrity-based" profession owing to the immense powers with which police officers are vested under the law (Oliver, 2013), and they should therefore be required to undertake training in ethical leadership (Ortmeier & Meese, 2010). The necessity for police leaders to possess integrity and have ethical values has been stressed in the literature (see Baker, 2011; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Devitt & Borodzicz, 2008; Garner, 2017; Goldsmith, 2001; Graves, 1996; Griffin, 1998; Macdonald, 1995; Morreale & Ortmeier, 2004; O'Leary et al., 2011; Oliver, 2013; Ortmeier & Meese, 2010; Schafer, 2010a; Stamper, 1992). From a strategic perspective, police leaders need to cultivate a culture of integrity that permeates the organisation (Graves, 1996; Lewis, 2010; Silvestri, 2007).

Related to possessing integrity and ethics, good leaders were perceived as officers who understood their obligations as role models (see Andersson Arnten et al., 2017; Baker, 2011; Graves, 1996; Isenberg, 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011; Oliver, 2013). Densten (2003) researched 480 senior police in Australia and found good leaders' behaviour resembled "idealised influence", which instilled subordinates with a feeling of pride, conviction and respect. Caless (2011, p. 89) argued one of the core attributes of a successful executive leader was the capability to "encourage, mentor, develop and motivate staff".

Being a good communicator is another key attribute of police leaders commonly identified within scholarly discourse (see Beck & Wilson, 1997; Bryman et al., 1996; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Dantzker, 1996; Davis, 2017; Garner, 2017; Knight, Bailey, & Burns, 2015; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; O'Leary et al., 2011; Schafer, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). The

British Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) has prescribed a number of pivotal competencies necessary for strategic police leaders, including effective communication (Caless & Tong, 2017). Caless (2011) noted that, at the rank of chief officer, communication was a critical attribute that needed to be applied both "strategically and organisationally". Separate US studies by Garner (2017) and Knight et al. (2015, pp. 7-8) found that effective communication was the most desired attribute for police chiefs to possess. The Australian and New Zealand Police Strategy (ANZPLS) capability framework lists the ability of senior leaders to communicate with influence as a critical competency (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Another key attribute for police leaders to possess involves good conceptual skills, including higher order creative, critical and strategic thinking (see Baker, 2011; Caless, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017; Council of Canadian Academies, 2016; Davis, 2017; Gaston, 1997; Martin et al., 2017; Meaklim & Sims, 2011; O'Leary et al., 2011). In the UK, the College of Policing (2016, p. 16) developed a competency and values framework (CVF) that identified that senior leaders needed to be able to "analyse critically". Gaston (1997) found that being able to think critically was the most significant predicator of success for police executives. Martin et al. (2017) referred to this skill for police leaders as the conceptual ability to harmonise higher order thinking with operational requirements.

Decision making may be a generic attribute required for all leaders operating in private and public domains. However, the critical need for police leaders to be good decision makers has been repeatedly stressed within scholarly discourse (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Caless, 2011; Dantzker, 1996; Densten, 2003; Dick, 2011; Knight et al., 2015; Metcalfe & Dick, 2000; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Oliver, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2010a). Knight et al., (2015, pp. 7-8) found that being decisive was a key dimension of police chiefs to perform their role

effectively. These authors defined decisiveness as the "readiness to make decisions, render judgement, take action and commit oneself" (Knight et al., 2015, p. 8). Caless (2011, p. 97) examined key characteristics for senior executives in the UK and found that chief officers needed to make hard decisions and possess the confidence to "see them through". The ACPO (2011) articulated that the key requirement for senior police managers in the UK was to make sound and timely decisions.

Trust or trustworthiness is another attribute that arguably all police officers should possess as the need for the public to have trust in the police is paramount. When trust is broken, policing by consent fails and public safety becomes a casualty (Goldsmith, 2005). Not surprisingly, trust has therefore been frequently emphasised as a critical attribute or trait associated with a good police leader (see Andersson Arnten et al., 2017; Graves, 1996; Martin et al., 2017; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Wheatcroft et al., 2012). In turn, the need for officers to trust their leaders is considered critical to enhance interpersonal relationships, communication and cohesion within police work environments (Martin et al., 2017). Par (2015) argued that a subordinate's perception of a leader's effectiveness was related to the amount of mutual trust engendered between them. Building on the key attributes of police leaders described earlier, the discussion will now explore desirable behaviours of good or effective police leaders identified by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013).

#### *3.1.7.3 Desirable Behaviours*

Despite several studies investigating desirable behaviours of police leaders, a lack of reliable evidence exists concerning what constitutes effective police leadership behaviours (Davis, 2017; Dobby et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2008). However, as previously alluded, the systematic literature review undertaken by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013, p. 2) identified commonly cited behaviours considered desirable for good or effective police

leaders as follows: problem solving, creating a shared vision, engendering organisational commitment; caring for subordinates, and driving and managing change. These behaviours will be explored in the ensuing analysis.

The ability to solve problems has been frequently cited as a desirable behaviour in good police leaders (see Butterfield, Edwards, & Woodall, 2004; Caless, 2011; Miller et al., 2009; O'Leary et al., 2011). Miller et al. (2009, p. 54) articulated problem solving to incorporate creativity, handling delicate issues and being action orientated. Problem solving skills in senior police leaders needed to be proactive, as opposed to reactive, to temper a fire-fighting approach to addressing problems (O'Leary et al., 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

Another highly considered behaviour of police leaders, particularly at senior levels, involves promoting a vision for the organisation (see Baker, 2011; Garner, 2017; Grant & Toch, 1991; O'Leary et al., 2011). Miller et al. (2009, p. 54) explained that sustaining the vision constituted: having self-confidence; being able to manage change; having influence; and being comfortable with being visible. While the importance for senior police leaders to be forward thinking has been emphasised (see Garner, 2017), within complex contemporary policing environments it is critical that executive level officers articulate a strong vision for the organisation (O'Leary et al., 2011).

Analogous to developing a shared vision, the demonstrated ability to build organisational commitment is another desirable trait of good police leaders. Various definitions of organisation commitment have been articulated within scholarly writings, including the extent to which workers feel obliged to remain with the company (Yousef, 2017) and the psychological bond employees possess with the organisation (Choi, Oh, & Colbert, 2015). Empirical research has linked enhanced levels of organisational commitment to reduced staff turnover and lower rates of absenteeism (Johnson, 2015). Engendering greater organisational

commitment in policing has been associated with leaders who inspire or motivate others (see Garner, 2017; Grant & Toch, 1991; O'Leary et al., 2011), together with leaders possessing good communication skills (see Beck & Wilson, 1997; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). In an Australian based study, Densten, 2003 discovered that executive level officers considered "inspirational motivation" as a primary indicator of effective leadership. Research undertaken by Metcalfe and Dick (2001) in the UK found that police organisational commitment was linked to: an officer's ability to engage in decision making; the degree of support from management; and being supplied meaningful feedback on performance.

Caring for subordinates or displaying compassion is considered a highly attractive behaviour in police leaders (see Andersson Arnten et al., 2017; Garner, 2017; Martin et al., 2017). The extant literature also describes caring for subordinates as "individualised consideration", which comprises a key characteristic of transformational leaders (see Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Davis, 2017; Densten, 2003; Schafer, 2010a; Vito & Higgins, 2010). Andreescu and Vito (2010, p. 573) described the attribute of being a considerate police leader as one who demonstrates "comfort, wellbeing and status of followers while recognising their individual contributions". Within Australia, Densten (2003) surveyed police leaders and found senior sergeants perceived individualised sense of consideration as a behaviour indicative of leadership effectiveness.

Another highly valued behaviour exhibited by good police leaders involves driving and managing change (see Bryman et al., 1996; Caless & Tong, 2017; O'Leary et al., 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Vito et al., 2011). In a US study, O'Leary et al. (2011) found it was important that police chiefs foresee the need for change and to be the drivers for organisational reform. However, bringing about meaningful organisational change in policing has traditionally been perceived as a task akin to "bending granite" (see Guyot, 1979;

Rowe, 2006; Schafer, 2009), with police leaders being generally perceived as inept change agents (Haake, Rantatalo, & Lindberg, 2017). Schafer (2009) argued the extent to which significant change can be achieved is highly contingent upon the police leader's skill in effectively managing, engaging and supervising subordinates. In summary, this discussion explored various aspects of leadership within the broader context of policing, while the following analysis (Section 3.1.10) will focus on overviewing leadership within the Australian policing context.

### 3.1.10 Leadership in Australian Police Organisations

Most scholarly discourse concerning police leadership focuses on US and UK policing environments. For instance, the previously noted systematic literature review by Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) found a mere handful of empirically based studies associated with police management or leadership in Australia (see Beck & Wilson, 1997; Densten, 1999, 2002, 2003, 2005; Fleming, 2004; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000; Hoque et al., 2004; Moore, 1994). The dearth of empirical research on police leadership in Australia was highlighted by (Mitchell, 2009) and there have been no published studies subsequent to Mitchell's (2009) research. Within the broader public sector in Australia, particularly within policing, there is limited understanding of what essential attributes are necessary to constitute effective leadership (Mitchell, 2009). Therefore this research addresses, to some degree, this gap in the literature concerning how senior police leaders develop their leadership within an Australian policing context.

Policing in Australia is governed from a state and territory perspective as well as a federal one. State and territory police organisations administer policing within defined geographical boundaries. The Australian Federal Police (AFP), however, administers federal legislation across Australia, including community policing functions within the Australian Capital

Territory (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Charlesworth & Robertson, 2012; Fleming & Hall, 2013; Fleming & Lafferty, 2000). Each police agency is governed independently with its own commissioner and police minister who govern their portfolios with distinctly separate powers (Burgess et al., 2006).

From a historical perspective, the military organisational structures that typified the English model of policing were subsequently inherited by each Australian police organisation (Etter, 1993) and, from the mid-1850s, were moulded and fortified within a colonial context, culminating in the formation of large highly centralised bureaucratic organisations (Fleming & Hall, 2013). As discussed earlier in Section 3.1.5, various reforms have impacted upon western police agencies. The following discussion will briefly describe major reforms which have impacted on Australian police leaders in recent times.

Significant reform measures within many Australian police agencies have resulted from major inquiries and commissions, such as the Fitzgerald Inquiry (Fitzgerald, 1989) in Queensland and The Wood Royal Commission (Wood, 1997) in New South Wales, which both uncovered significant police corruption and maladministration (Chan & Dixon, 2007; Prenzler, 2011). These inquiries have documented leadership failures and invariably provided unflattering descriptions regarding the standard of leadership provided. For instance, after uncovering wide-scale corruption within the QPS, the Fitzgerald Report (Fitzgerald, 1989, p. 200) presented a scathing assessment of the QPS and the calibre of leadership, describing the institution as “debilitated by misconduct, inefficiency, incompetence, and deficient leadership”. The Wood Royal Commission (Wood, 1997, p. 207) uncovered widespread and systematic corruption within the New South Wales Police Force and made a damning appraisal of police leadership, stating that “suspicion of new

ideas", "command and control" and a "limited, authoritarian and conservative outlook of the senior command" existed.

Police agencies in Australia have not been immune to the sweeping reforms brought about by the new public management agenda (NPM), and as described in Chapter 2, were outcomes focused on "doing more with less", including approaches such as enhanced performance management aimed at reaping greater effectiveness and efficiency dividends. These reforms introduced within Australia and across Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries have pressured police leaders to improve crime clear-up rates and reduce police resources (Mann, 2016). Subsequent failures in police leadership have been linked to unsuccessful attempts at implementing these reform initiatives (Chan & Dixon, 2007; Mitchell, 2009).

In Australian police organisations, senior officers are charged with running complex bureaucracies within an increasingly dynamic, ambiguous and politically charged environment (Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Fleming & Hall, 2013). Compared to overseas police agencies and other government departments in Australia, police organisations in Australia are large with substantial operating budgets (Casey & Mitchell, 2007, pp. 5-6). Policing in Australia and New Zealand remains one of the few occupations who expect all officers to enter the organisation as a police recruit and navigate their career paths from the bottom rung to the top echelons, by proceeding through all ranks (Roberts, Herrington, Jones, White, & Day, 2016). After entering, officers usually remain with the one police agency for the remainder of their careers (Casey & Mitchell, 2007, pp. 5-6). How to effectively manage the performance of officers who are difficult to discharge and who never leave the organisation presents unique challenges to police leaders.

The ability to bring “fresh blood” into Australian police organisations through lateral requirements at senior management ranks, presents considerable obstacles for executive police leaders. For instance, Casey and Mitchell (2007) argue that despite the occasional appointment of senior police executives, the ability of police leaders to transfer laterally between police jurisdictions in Australia is restricted. Structural impediments within police organisations also limit sworn officers from occupying civilian positions unless they resign their rank and forgo generous police entitlements. The lack of mobility both internally and between jurisdictions, therefore, constrains the free flow of information and exchange of experiences between officers and other jurisdictions. This lack of permeability can have adverse impacts on the development of police leaders and aspiring leaders by curbing opportunities to learn and grow in diverse work environments (Casey & Mitchell, 2007, p. 6).

This chapter has discussed forces that impact on policing, the changing police role, together with police organisational structures and reform measures. The unique police context in which leaders operate was also explored in conjunction with police leadership roles, styles, attributes and behaviours. Now that the police context and characteristics of good or effective leaders has been described, ways to best develop those leaders will be discussed in the section that follows. An overview of key contextual factors that impact on the development of police leaders will be presented together with the need for tailored interventions. In addition, a description of leadership development models, frameworks and methods associated with policing will be provided along with an introduction to police leadership development in Australia.

## 3.2. Introduction to How Police Leaders Develop

As previously highlighted in Chapter 1, the available literature highlights the lack of empirical studies focusing on how police leaders advance their leadership (see Gaston & King, 1995; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a; Wedlick, 2012), together with paucity of studies to evaluate the efficacy of leadership development approaches (Herrington, 2014; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Miller et al., 2009; Neyroud, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a). The lack of consistent evidence in establishing a proven leadership style in policing has proven problematic when developing leadership programs aimed at articulating preferred styles, traits and performance (Wright et al., 2008). Schafer (2009, p. 24) posits the failure of police organisations to effectively develop their leaders could in part be attributed to the "lack of social science inquiry in to the leadership development process". The following discussion outlines contextual factors impacting how police leaders develop, including police culture and organisational structures, systems and processes.

### 3.2.1 Contextual Factors Impacting Leadership Development

As previously noted, a common narrative within the extant literature on policing involves the distinct contextual factors which impact upon leadership. Not surprisingly, scholarly works have also highlighted how context has subsequently influenced how police leaders are developed. As discussed earlier, police culture significantly impacts on how leaders operate in policing (see Crank, 1998). Researchers have also highlighted negative aspects of police culture likely to inhibit or impede effective leadership development (see Campbell, Stewart, & Kodz, 2011; Dobby et al., 2004; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Schafer, 2009, 2010b). Cultural factors associated with male dominated police professions have also inhibited certain leadership styles (Dobby et al., 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Silvestri, 2007) and were linked to impeding female officers from advancing their development (Dobby et al., 2004). Schafer (2009) found the risk-adverse police culture, which was intolerant to failure,

could negatively impact an officer's career development, which meant courageous officers who took risks increased their chances of failure. Instead, officers who avoided true leadership by choosing no-action and opting instead for a safer route, were rewarded with promotion (Schafer, 2009). Such a system is inherently flawed as it rewards and subsequently encourages leadership behaviours not aligned with the overall strategic goals of the organisation.

Time constraints and workload pressures associated with the role of officer have also been found to inhibit their development (Campbell et al., 2011; Herrington, 2014), including a lack of resources (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Schafer, 2009). Furthermore, various structural impediments within police organisations were found to inhibit officers from enhancing their leadership (Campbell et al., 2011; Herrington, 2014; Schafer, 2010b), together with organisational politics (Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010b). In addition, people-related factors (Herrington, 2014), including ineffective leadership exhibited by superiors (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Schafer, 2009) and a reliance on management over leadership (Schafer, 2008, 2009) has been found to constrain officers' development. The inability to clearly articulate or define a preferred leadership style has also been identified as a barrier to advancing police leadership (see Schafer, 2009, 2010b).

Scholars agree that it is imperative police agencies develop a positive organisational culture that supports developing their leaders (see Campbell et al., 2011; Neyroud, 2010; Schafer, 2009; VICPOL, 2007). To ensure positive leadership development outcomes, leadership development needs to be embedded in the organisation's culture and infrastructure (Kodz & Campbell, 2010) together with an alignment of organisational systems and process (McLeod & Herrington, 2016). For instance, in the UK police, Campbell et al., (2011) found that a police culture that failed to support leadership development could damage an officer's career

progression. Another cultural impediment involved police organisations not identifying and supporting talented individuals (see Campbell et al., 2011).

. A common theme within scholarly discourse contends that the distinct nature of police work commands tailoured approaches to developing leaders. Once again, a lack of empirical evidence is notably missing from this discussion. It is now opportune to turn our attention to briefly exploring that discourse.

### 3.2.2 Tailored Police Leadership Development

Scholarly discourse in policing has debated the relative merits of applying tailored leadership development interventions, as opposed to adopting generic corporate style approaches (Engel, 2001; Hooijberg, Hunt, & Dodge, 1997; Kingshott, 2006; Rowe, 2006). The debate concerning the suitability of corporate style leadership development interventions appears more pertinent at senior leadership levels. For example, Densten (2003) posited such differences may be attributed to officers occupying more senior level positions having greater similarities with equivalent levels in corporate environments. Therefore, customising leadership development may become less critical as police leaders climb the corporate ladder (Schafer, 2009). Discussion concerning the need for tailored police leadership development can be linked to the perennial debate within scholarly circles (discussed earlier) on whether leadership in policing is a unique or distinct enterprise compared to other occupations. Notwithstanding, cultural factors in policing have been found to strongly impact the penchant for police specific training aimed at addressing the unique contextual variables evident in policing (Rowe, 2006).

The research indicates tailored leadership development is necessary to properly target the needs of different ranks. For instance, Golding and Savage (2011) found the multiple levels of leadership that exist in policing necessitate targeted development interventions. When

comparing street officers to police performing management roles, cultural differences have been identified together with contrasting tasks performed (Reuss-Ianni & Ianni, 1983; Van Maanen, 1984). Therefore, differences in the nature of roles performed by management and street cops would explain the need for segregated development interventions.

The positive developmental outcomes derived from police leaders being exposed to leaders from corporate style environments have been highlighted. For instance, Neyroud (2011) advocated the benefits of police organisations adopting a mixed or hybrid approach involving tailored internal leadership development combined with externally facilitated development. Leadership development presents significant challenges for corporate and public service entities alike and police have no monopoly on the best way to develop and select leaders (Caless & Tong, 2017). In practice, police agencies conduct senior leadership development programs that are attended by colleagues from other professions. For instance, delegates from multiple agencies attend the National College of Police Leadership (NCPL) in the United Kingdom (Neyroud, 2011). The much vaunted Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) course is attended by participants attached to police agencies world-wide (Schafer, 2008, 2009), and attendees at the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM) leadership course are drawn from a wide range of emergency service agencies (AIPM, 2018). Despite the unique or distinctive context that exists within policing, benefits accrue for police being exposed to leaders from other professions through attendance at professional development programs (see Adlam, 2000; Neyroud, 2011).

Despite the lack of empirical evidence, most scholarly opinion favours tailored or customised leadership development interventions for police. Based on that knowledge, and the salient impact organisational context has on police leadership development, it is now timely to examine several leader developmental models and frameworks linked to policing.

### 3.2.3 Leader Development Models and Frameworks

Despite the relative importance of leader developmental models or frameworks in policing, the area has received scant scholarly attention. References are made in the extant literature linking military models to police leader development (see Cowper, 2000; Miller et al., 2009; Schafer, 2009), however no scholarly evidence exists which supports an empirically tested police leader development model. Instead (Schafer, 2009, p. 238) posited skills enhancement of individual leaders could be best achieved through experience combined with education and mentorship with modelling and mentoring key components. Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) echoed Schafer's views, advocating good leadership development through three critical elements, namely "formal education, on-the-job experience [and] … mentoring". Recently, Poitras (2017) downplayed the impact of formal training and education, arguing officers developed their leadership informally, including "lived experiences", mentoring from superiors and the prevailing organisational culture. Some police organisations failed to properly develop their leaders because they omitted to recognise the importance of learning leadership through "on-the-job" experience, together with being mentored by successful leaders (Schafer, 2009). In summary, the literature emphasises the importance for police to learn the art of leadership from experience – learning from doing, from practical application or learning "on-the-job" (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2009; Wedlick, 2012).

Military approaches to developing leaders have been linked to leadership development models applied in policing (see Neyroud, 2011; Schafer, 2010a). Military models take a somewhat different three-component approach, arguing that "to be a competent leader there are certain things that you must "BE, KNOW and DO" (US.Military.Academy, 2009, p. 16). The approach also includes five key components: "readiness", "developmental experiences", "reflection", "new capacities and knowledge" and interestingly, a resource component, i.e.

"time". The efficacy of applying traditional military-style models of leadership training within contemporary police organisations has been questioned (see Miller et al., 2009; Vodde, 2008), with scholars suggesting instead that a behavioural competency approach, allowing flexibility to address the changing police role and evolving needs of contemporary police leaders (Miller et al., 2009) is required. Schafer (2010a) acknowledged, to date, no definitive approach to police leadership development exists, but argued any broad attempt to do so must consider cultural, structural and other critical factors. The two part leader development model espoused by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010), discussed in previous chapters, will be used to guide this research. The following table provides an overview of six different leader development models or frameworks, identified in the literature, which have been linked to policing.

**Table 3.2 Leadership Development Models or Frameworks Linked to Policing**

| Source | Brief Description | Key components or phases/stages |
|---|---|---|
| Schafer (2009) Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) | Three significant influences involved in developing police leaders | Significant influences: education and training; mentorship and modelling |
| Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) | Three critical elements underpinning the development of police leaders | Critical elements: formal education, on-the-job experience and mentoring |
| McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) | 70:20:10 leadership learning mix | 10% of leadership acquired through traditional classroom-style development; 20% is developed via mentoring; and 70% completed through on-the-job learning experiences. Note: Linked to the QPS leadership development program |
| US Military Academy (2009) | To be a competent leader there are certain things that you must "BE, KNOW and DO" | These three elements combine to inspire leader development in the individual. BE: is about the army officer identify; KNOW: involves knowledge, facilitated by education; and DO: comprises competencies and actions, facilitated by training |
| US.Military.Academy (2009) | US Military Academy leadership development model comprises five key components | Key components comprise: (i) readiness; (ii) developmental experiences; (iii) reflection; (iv) new capacities and knowledge; and (v) time |
| McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) | Integrates learning experiences via three key strategies. Strengthen individual's ability to achieve learning from experience; Match leader development approach with leadership context | Integrated learning experiences via assessment, challenge and support. Note: Linked to QPS leadership development program |

Building upon the previous review of leadership models and frameworks linked to policing, the following discussion will briefly explore popular developmental methods applied within selected western police agencies.

### 3.2.4 Popular Leader Development Methods

Within scholarly works, several commonly used methods to develop police leaders are evident, however a distinct lack of empirical evidence exists to support the relative efficacy of such approaches. To fill the void, police educators and practitioners have traditionally relied upon what they regard as 'tried' or 'proven' (in the field) methods to build leadership capacity. For instance, the literature review coupled with searches of official police websites revealed various developmental methods applied by US, UK and Australian police organisations to develop their leaders (see Table 3.3). At more senior levels, police organisations have steadfastly relied upon formal (structured) learning in the form of in-house leadership development programs (see Roberts et al., 2016). In the US, since the 1930s the FBI conducted in-house structured police leadership development programs incorporating a 10 week residential component in Quantico, US (Wuestewald, 2016). In Australia, the AIPM offers a broad suite of leadership development programs including the flagship graduate certificate in applied management comprising a three-week residential component and the graduate diploma in executive leadership involving a two-week live-in element, together with a distance based mode (AIMP, 2018; Herrington, 2014). In the UK, the College of Policing (2018) has revamped its traditional residential leadership development program allowing broader access and increased flexibility to available leadership development opportunities, coupled with enhanced IT learning interventions.

Researchers have observed that while training regimes are slowly changing within policing, many police organisations still steadfastly cling to more traditional "face to face" learning

approaches (see Birzer, 1999; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Bradford & Pynes, 1999; McCoy, 2006). When applying conventional classroom-style learning, Birzer (2003) queried the dependence on teacher-centred approaches within policing, advocating for increased application of student-centred instructional design. Police officers appear to prefer adult education practices however Oliva and Compton (2010) found that in practice law enforcement classrooms at times failed to respond to officers' preferences.

Rather than include a lengthy description of leader development methods, the Table 3.3 (below) instead summarises popularly used methods by UK, US and Australian police agencies, with accompanying strengths and weaknesses of each method. Table 3.3 draws some similarities with industry best practice leader development methods discussed earlier in Chapter 2. What distinguishes both tables is that industry best practice reflects a greater array of methods, whereas police related scholarly literature makes little or no reference to outdoor challenges, reflection and networks as commonly applied developmental interventions.

**Table 3.3 Popular Police Leader Development Methods for Police Leaders**

| Method | Type of use and relative importance | Strengths/weaknesses |
|---|---|---|
| **Formal (structured) learning** | Relied upon in a broad range of training programs (see Birzer, 1999; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001; Bradford & Pynes, 1999).<br>Method to supplement other forms of learning for senior leaders (Herrington, 2014). | Efficacy questioned (Vodde, 2008); unlikely leadership outcomes (Dobby et al., 2004); narrow focus; teacher-centred (Birzer, 2003); positive outcomes acquired through mixed attendance (Kodz & Campbell, 2010). |
| **360 feedback** | Used in some UK leadership development programs (Hudson, 2014; Neyroud, 2010) together with US agencies (Atwater, Waldman, Atwater, & Cartier, 2000; Waldman & Atwater, 1998). | Promising learning process (Dobby et al., 2004; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010), but requires further research (Atwater et al., 2000). |
| **Coaching** | Recommended for use (Densten, 2003; Hudson, 2014). Necessary skill for supervisory level (Jarvis, 2011). Considered important for on-the-job development of junior staff (Jarvis, 2011). Promising method for developing leaders (Kodz & Campbell, 2010). | Necessary to advance junior officers (Murphy, 2006). On-going professional development (Lanyon, 2009). Method for developing leaders (Anderson, 1999; Drodge & Murphy, 2002b; Kodz & Campbell, 2010). Training required in supervisory levels (Jarvis, 2011). Particularly beneficial for female leaders (Haake, 2018). |
| **Job assignments** | Considered a good leader development approach (Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009; Wedlick, 2012). External job assignments considered beneficial (Gaston & King, 1995; Murray, 2000). Varied job/roles broadens experience base and enhances leadership capability (Murray, 2000). | Officers' require appropriate guidance and feedback (Schafer, 2009). Time-lag between performing acting duties and being promoted to gain stronger learning outcomes (Gaston & King, 1995). Helps fill the void between classroom and workplace (Jarvis, 2011). Increased developmental flexibility (Mastrofski, 2018). Benefits during formative career stages (Roberts et al., 2016). |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Mentoring** | Supported generally (see Hudson, 2014), including newly promoted leaders (Chaney, 2008), supervisor level (Jarvis, 2011; Schafer, 2010a), junior and senior officers (Densten, 2003; Schafer, 2008). Benefits for entry level officers (Tyler & McKenzie, 2011) dealing with additional responsibilities (Jacobs, Cushenbery, & Grabarek, 2011). Useful in developing female leaders (Haake, 2018). | Appropriate for leadership development (Baker, 2011; Murphy, 2006; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a; Wedlick, 2012). Training in mentoring skills required to increase success (Gaston & King, 1995; Jarvis, 2011). Lack of suitable mentoring acts as a barrier to progress (Murphy, 2005). Needs to be introduced early in career (Jones, 2018). |
| **Action Learning** | Potentially important method (see Adlam, 2000; Herrington & Colvin, 2015; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Macfarlane & Mould, 2002; Neyroud, 2010). Applied in some UK leadership programs (Hudson, 2014). Used in Australian programs for police leaders (see Flynn & Herrington, 2015; McLeod & Herrington, 2016). | Should be incorporated with reflective learning to maximise benefits. Enhancement of self-awareness (Campbell, 2011; Neyroud, 2010). More research required to establish relative effectiveness (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Munro, 2017). |

### 3.2.5 Current Australian Police Leadership Development

The researcher sourced practitioner or industry-based articles to inform this discussion, owing to the lack of scholarly research concerning police leadership development in Australia. Police recruits within Australia are sworn in as police officers at a relatively young age and invariably remain in the one organisation for the remainder of their careers (Casey & Mitchell, 2007), reflecting a “cradle to the grave” approach when developing leadership talent within their ranks. The phenomena of police officers steadfastly remaining in the same career and organisation for their entire working life is not unique to Australia, with references to “rookies to retirees” within US police agencies (see Levenson, O'Hara, & Clark, 2010) for example. Senior police leaders in Australia are charged with leading complex agencies that operate in an increasingly dynamic and unpredictable environment, necessitating new leadership skills and capabilities to deal with these complex challenges (Casey & Mitchell, 2007). The importance of developing police leaders is considered critical for the future viability of the police organisation in terms of maintaining standards concerning integrity, accountability and productivity (Herrington, 2015; Kodz & Campbell, 2010).

As previously noted in Chapter 1, after reviewing professional development offered on official websites of each Australian police agency, no uniform leadership development approach was evident. Instead, each state and federal organisation developed in-house or

“home-grown” approaches tailored to meet specific agency requirements. This non-standardised approach reflects a patchwork of developmental offerings lacking in uniformity concerning educational standards or developmental methods applied. The AIPM provides the only standard leadership development opportunities accessed by all Australian police organisations. A detailed description of leadership development offerings provided by Australian police agencies is the subject of another study and discussed in Chapter 5.

The lack of police leadership development models has prompted Australian police agencies to ’borrow’ military models and public sector leadership frameworks in order to understand leadership development processes. Leadership development approaches adopted by some Australian police agencies have been influenced by developmental strategies adopted by the Australian Public Service (APS). The APS base their leadership development strategy on the “Knowing-Doing-Being” elements of leadership (APS, 2014), together with the 70:20:10 principle of learning (APS, 2014; Herrington, 2015), which represents a blend of military and non-military theoretical approaches. The Australian and New Zealand Police Leadership Strategy’ (ANZPLS) aims to accelerate the development of the top 10% of police executive leaders (Singh, 2013 ). The ANZPLS strategy is based on two developmental frameworks: the 70:20:10 model of learning and the military leadership model titled “Be: Know: Do” (AIPM, 2014). In line with the model applied by the ANZPLS, the AIPM has also adopted the 70:20:10 learning principle which underpins all its leadership development offerings (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Herrington, 2014). The 70:20:10 learning involves shifting leader development away from structured classroom-based training and empowering agencies to accept responsibility to apply 70 percent of the leadership learning in the workplace (Flynn & Herrington, 2015). Some organisations see the 10 percent of learning acquired through structured training as the commencement and conclusion of leadership development, with little focus on support necessary to reinforce the outstanding 90 percent of development,

comprising the critical on-job learning and development relationships (Flynn & Herrington, 2015). Notwithstanding, the promotional process applied within Australian police agencies favours officers undertaking development by honing their police craft through on-the-job experience, as opposed to attending formal leadership education (Roberts et al., 2016).

The QPS, upon which the majority of this research is based, has followed the lead shown by the ANZPLS and AIPM, by adopting a similar model to leadership development. For example, Lavin and Kemp (2013) explain the three pillars of leadership development philosophy underpinning the QPS leadership development framework, comprising assessment, challenge and support combined with the 70:20:10 learning principle. The overall purpose for the QPS leadership development involves assisting leaders to realise their maximum potential through a process of support, consultation and facilitation (Lavin & Kemp, 2013).

Table 3.4 (below) illustrates how development of leadership skills in the QPS targets officers across all ranks. The teaching of leadership theory and principles is incorporated in formal or structured development interventions, which form prerequisites for promotion. This approach aligns with the “every officer is a leader” concept, discussed earlier, which espouses that regardless of rank, every officer needs to engage in various leadership tasks during the course of their duties (see Kingshott, 2006; Ramsey & Robinson, 2015).

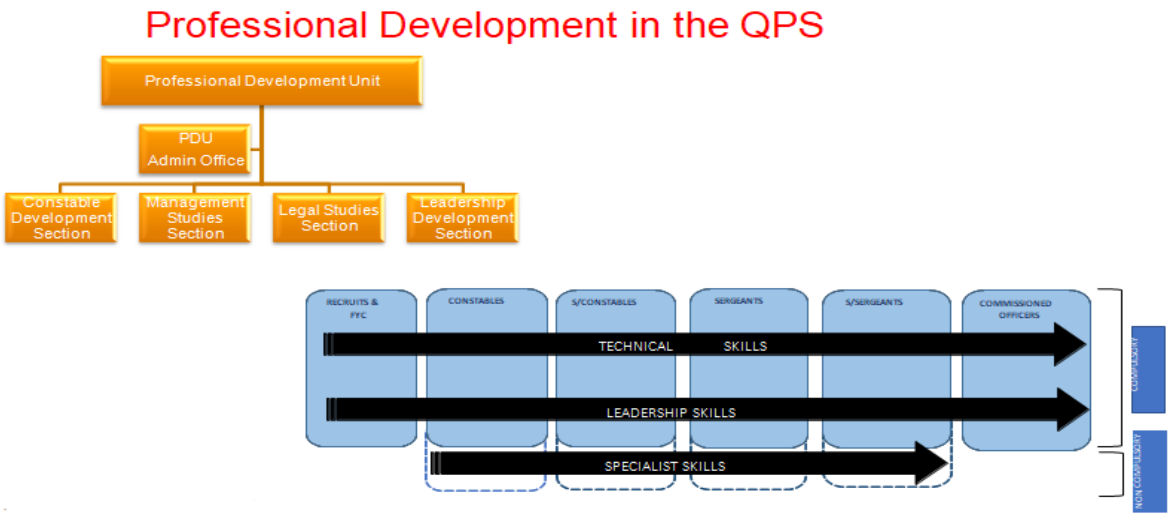


Figure 2.3: Professional development in the Queensland Police Service
*Source: QPS., 2014b*

## 3.3 Conclusion

This chapter was presented in two sections. The first section provided an overview of policing, including forces impacting police organisations together with describing how the police role was evolving. An overview was provided of police organisational structures together with a summary of major police reform measures. A brief analysis was presented of the unique contextual milieu of policing prior to the discussion centring on leadership in policing. Various theories associated with leadership in policing were introduced, together with an overview of scholarly debate concerning whether leadership in policing is a unique endeavour ("police leadership verses leadership in policing"). An overview was provided of various leadership frameworks and models associated with policing. The discussion then identified the various leadership styles linked with policing, together with the key attributes and behaviours associated with good or effective leaders. The first section concluded by outlining leadership within Australian police agencies.

The second section focused on leadership development in policing by describing contextual factors that impact on how police officers become leaders. An outline was presented of the scholarly debate regarding the need for tailored leadership development for police leaders. A brief discussion concerning leader development models, frameworks and methods was presented. This section concluded by providing an overview of leadership development within Australian policing.

To summarise, an introduction to the thesis was provided (Chapter 1) together with a presentation of the literature concerning leadership and leadership development, both within a corporate (Chapter 2) and policing (Chapter 3) context. It is now timely to discuss the research methodology applied in this thesis, which will be outlined in the following chapter.

# Chapter 4. Chapter 4 Research Methodology

## 4.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 outlined the broad theoretical concepts associated with leadership and leadership development, and Chapter 3 examined the context of policing and police leadership. The literature review identified a lack of social inquiry into how police learned the art of leadership, including learning methods likely to advance leadership in policing. Research gaps also existed concerning factors likely to facilitate or hinder the development of police leaders. As highlighted in the literature review (Chapter 3), only a handful of empirical studies exist in the area of leadership development in the policing context, and these relatively rare studies are confined to police organisations in the UK and the US. No empirical research investigating how police leaders developed their leadership within Australia was identified. Therefore, this thesis, as an initial aim, will fill a gap in the research by exploring how senior police leaders acquired their leadership skills within an Australian policing context, with a focus on leadership development of commissioned officers in the QPS. Additionally, it will build the corpus of literature at an international level. The theoretical framework espoused by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010), described earlier in Chapter 2, guided subsequent research aimed at exploring the extent to which aspects of feedback, challenge and support have impacted the development of senior police leaders within an Australian policing context.

## 4.2 Research Aims

The broad goal of the proposed research is to explore leadership development within Australian police organisations, with a specific focus on the QPS. This research investigated the types of learning experiences that enhanced the development of commissioned officers as senior police leaders. The study adopts a mixed methods approach to:

- identify methods and factors impacting the enhancement of police leadership in the Australian context; and
- determine the extent to which leadership is acquired "in the field", (practice) as opposed to formal settings (theory).

## 4.3 Research Questions

Research questions will focus on deriving a richer understanding of learning methods and associated factors likely to advance the leadership of commissioned officers. The research questions are broadly framed to allow thorough investigation by applying a mixed methods approach.

**Research Question 1**

What methods best facilitate how senior police leaders develop their leadership?

**Research Question 2**

What factors (other than methods) constrain or facilitate how senior police leaders develop their leadership?

**Research Question 3**

To what extent is leadership development of senior police influenced by aspects of challenge, feedback and support?

This chapter outlines the research approach in addressing the research aims and questions. The mixed methods approach applied in this study will be outlined together with underlying philosophical assumptions. A description of the data collection methods and sources applied for each study will be described. Finally, the chapter will conclude by summarising methods applied prior to introducing the first of three studies in this research.

## 4.4 Overview of Research Design

As previously explained, this research relies upon a mixed methods approach comprising three studies. The first study involved semi-structured interviews with several content matter experts drawn from police jurisdictions throughout Australia, together with an AIPM representative. After analysing interviews, missing data was supplemented by reviewing documents and policies sourced from police agencies and accessing open source online data. This first study aimed to provide an overview of leadership development methods and practices applied by police jurisdictions in Australia.

The second study comprised a survey questionnaire, which investigated professional training and development of the population at the centre of this thesis: QPS commissioned officers. This study examined officers' perceptions concerning learning methods, which enhanced their development as leaders, together with other factors that facilitated or stymied their development. This study also examined the extent to which feedback, challenge and support influenced their advancement as leaders.

The final study involved semi-structured interviews with QPS commissioned officers, focusing on factors that facilitated or hindered their advancement as senior police leaders. The study also investigated the degree to which challenge, feedback and support affected their development as senior leaders in the QPS.

### 4.4.1 Ethics

The three studies that comprise this thesis received ethics approval from the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee. Officers who participated were advised regarding procedures associated with their respective studies. Participants were also informed that their involvement in the studies was entirely voluntary. In addition, officers

were advised they could, at any time, suspend their participation from the research. Informed consent was provided by participants prior to commencement of each interview.

### 4.4.2 Determining the Research Methodology

To explore each of the research questions, a mixed methods approach (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) was employed by bringing together the analysis of survey data and secondary data derived from qualitative semi-structured interviews, comprising commissioned officers and subject matter experts. This mixed methods approach, involving a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, was determined the most appropriate method in achieving the research aims. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), when collecting multiple data, employing various strategies and approaches through mixed methods provides the best potential in achieving this aim. This approach also provides a means of filling the schism existing between quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The mixed methods approach has been a popular approach deployed in social research (Grafton, Lillis, & Mahama, 2011), business studies (Bryman & Bell, 2015) and leadership research in the field of policing (see Devine, 2012; Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

As discussed earlier, a qualitative method consisting of semi-structured interviews and the quantitative method comprising a survey questionnaire were applied in this research. Both approaches have been used extensively by researchers when investigating the field of police leadership, including interviews (see Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996; Engel, 2001; Silvestri, 2006) and surveys (see Coleman, 2008; Densten, 1999, 2002, 2003; Gaston & King, 1995). Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) reviewed the literature on police leadership spanning two decades, finding the most commonly applied methodology involved surveys followed by mixed methods.

The researcher was mindful to avoid relying solely on surveys as a means of gathering data. Campbell and Kodz (2011), in their systematic literature review of police leadership, criticised over-reliance on survey questionnaires at the expense of interviews, warning this approach could result in overly simplistic findings which lack contextual reality. Subsequently, this research applied a mixed methods approach when exploring the context of leadership development in policing, offering a triangulated approach. This methodology is similar to that taken by Currie, Lockett, and Suhomlinova (2009), who applied a mixed methods approach to examine leadership within the context of organisational change. Currie et al. (2009) used mixed methods, as in the current case, involving a combination of qualitative questions, combined with a survey instrument. The interviews served to obtain richer, more in-depth data involving leaders' interactions within their environment (Currie et al., 2009).

### 4.4.3 Underlying Philosophical Assumptions

As previously mentioned in addressing the research questions, a mixed methods approach (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) was undertaken, combining an analysis of survey data and secondary data, comprising qualitative semi-structured interviews with senior police officers and content matter experts. Methods used by researchers in designing and implementing studies are guided by a particular group of philosophical assumptions. The success, or otherwise, of their research is predicated on selecting and applying the philosophical ideology that best suits those philosophical principles. The research paradigm, or core set of beliefs, is informed by two specific areas of philosophy: ontology and epistemology (Klakegg, 2016; Mack, 2010). Choosing a methodology is determined by the type of research issues with which ontology and epistemology can best address the research question (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Mack (2010, p. 5) defines ontology as

“one’s view of reality and being”, and epistemology as “view of how one acquires knowledge”.

From the viewpoint of a realist, the generation of scientific knowledge can be achieved through a series of observations (Bryman & Bell, 2015), with this philosophy concerning how knowledge is created, commonly described as positivism (Mack, 2010). The positivist school of thought originated from the natural sciences, applying deductive reasoning as a means of discovering universal laws (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2000). Consistent with the realist approach, positivist research expects the researcher to remain totally objective and separate from subjects, therefore guaranteeing findings are not tainted by personal beliefs (Cavana et al., 2000). However, the positivist approach has fielded criticisms (Crook & Garratt, 2005), including whether the emphasis placed on objectivity is appropriate in all cases (Thorpe, 2015). Opponents argue that striving for complete objectivity is unachievable. Therefore, the positivist approach lacks substance and unsuccessfully deals with social frameworks or context (Cavana et al., 2000).

The antithetical paradigm to positivism is known as *interpretivism* and is congruent with nominalist beliefs (Mustafa, 2011). *Interpretivism* explores social phenomena within natural settings and investigates contemporary ideas and social structures (Pickard, 2013). The interpretivist hypothesis assumes that the content of social sciences, comprising people and institutions, can be easily distinguished from the natural sciences with resultant knowledge acquired, necessitating a different approach (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Interpretivism places more emphasis on rigorously interrogating the reasons for human behaviour, as opposed to the forces which influence it (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Even though this research is concerned with social sciences and human subjects, both approaches (interpretivist and positivist) arguably have relevance and application in this

research. While the interpretivist approach draws heavily upon qualitative methods, the positivist approach is more reliant upon quantitative approaches. The aim of a mixed methods approach is to avoid the antagonistic relationship between the quantitative and qualitative approaches, and instead, draw from the strengths of both approaches in addressing recalcitrant research questions. This approach also draws upon the relative strengths of both positivist and interpretivist approaches, which arguably ensures the methodology employed in this study is sufficiently robust.

### 4.4.4 Establishing Trust and Confidence

As police agencies and their officers were the subject of this research, the researcher was mindful of the critical need to establish trust and confidence with participants. The secretive nature of police organisations and their inherent suspicion of outsiders, particularly researchers, has been noted (Marks, 2000; Verma, 2016). As alluded to in Chapter 1, the researcher was previously a commissioned officer in the QPS with over three decades of sworn police service and only recently separated from the organisation. The researcher's sworn policing experience and familiarity with many commissioned officers entitled him to a degree of "insider" status concerning the conduct of this research. The distinct advantages "insiders" possess as researchers have been alluded to in the literature (Fyfe, 1998; Lawson, 2016). Within the context of police culture, Lawson (2016) argued external researchers are capable of interpreting the impact that culture may have on gathered data, however, they may experience problems in first sourcing that data. In contrast, easy access to data as a police "insider" offers some limitations: the researcher may struggle to separate themselves from the object of their research (Lawson, 2016, p. 2). The researcher acknowledged this potential paradox by engaging the supervisory team (experienced outsider researchers) to overview data interrogation, which arguably culminated in a richer and deeper analysis of the data.

In contrast to research undertaken in the QPS (Study 2 and Study 3), Study 1, which involved accessing other police agencies, presented additional challenges for the researcher in terms of establishing trust and confidence. State and federal police agencies in Australia are administered independently through separate legislation, resulting in each jurisdiction adopting a somewhat parochial view of policing. Therefore, the researcher's insider status enjoyed with the QPS did not automatically carry over to other police agencies. In order to gain access to police data, the researcher engaged support from the QPCOUE executive to endorse Study 1 via a signed letter by the QPCOUE president, asking other unions to lend assistance to the study (see Appendix 1).

The ensuing discussion will introduce the first of three studies involving semi-structured interviews with content matter experts drawn from police jurisdictions, together with the AIPM. This analysis will detail the methodological approach undertaken, including a description of participants, the recruitment process, and the formulation of research questions and procedures employed in the study.

## 4.5 Study 1: Interviews with Content Matter Experts

The study examined how leadership development was undertaken in eight Australian police jurisdictions. This subsequent analysis involved a jurisdictional comparison of leadership development frameworks, policies, methods and practices involving senior police leaders. As noted previously in Chapter 1, this study did not attempt to evaluate or benchmark relative approaches undertaken by respective jurisdictions. The primary means of obtaining data in the first study comprised semi-structured interviews with content matter experts (or key informants) from participating state and federal police jurisdictions, together with the AIPM. The use of key informants as a means of gleaning important or critical information is supported in the literature (see Bryman, 2003; Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2015). Key

informants are able to provide quantifiable information, are capable of speaking on behalf of the organisation (Bryman, 2003) and are respected and knowledgeable within their field (Taylor et al., 2015). After analysing semi-structured interviews, missing or incomplete data was supplemented by examining various documents derived from a variety of sources.

### 4.5.1 Participants

A total of nine agency participants (hereafter referred to as key informants, content matter experts or participants) were interviewed for this study. Participants were identified using a snowballing or chain-referral technique (see Beauchemin & González-Ferrer, 2011), which has inherent limitations, including obtaining a limited number of subjects from similar backgrounds (Davidson & Mellor, 2001; Rosemarie, Mary, & Jackie, 2004). However, this approach was considered ideal within the context of secretive and security conscious police agencies. As Rosemarie et al. (2004) highlight, snowballing is one of the few techniques capable of accessing a sample difficult to penetrate, particularly where security characteristics underpin the sample framework. As discussed earlier, access to police agencies was made possible by enlisting the support of the QPCOUE executive through the process explained below.

### 4.5.2 Recruitment

The researcher secured QPCOUE executive support for the initial study as part of the signed MoU. The QPCOUE president wrote to each allied union requesting assistance in identifying a contact officer. A support letter under the hand of the QPCOUE president was dispatched to each allied police union or association within Australia. The letter requested research assistance by forwarding contact details of any person(s) within their jurisdiction possessing content matter knowledge in leadership development. As previously mentioned in Section 4.5.1, the snowballing technique proved effective in identifying content matter experts from

each agency, with referrals made by respective unions or referrals from within the agency itself. Contact officers comprised a mixture of sworn and non-sworn personnel, who possessed expert content matter knowledge and held senior level or executive level roles, mostly within education and training areas or allied portfolios.

### 4.5.3 Procedures

After contact was made with each key informant, formal consent was sought by providing a complete description of the study, including procedures involving confidentiality and voluntary participation. All participants were supplied an information sheet and signed the supplied consent form. For uniformity and practicality, all interviews were conducted over the telephone with informants agreeing to interviews being recorded electronically. Key informants were forwarded a copy of the interview questions prior to ensure they were properly prepared in advance. Interviews averaged approximately one hour in duration and ranged in length from 50 minutes to 90 minutes. For the purposes of accuracy and completeness, the researcher took detailed notes during interviews. Therefore, in summary, to ensure accuracy and completeness, all interviews were electronically recorded and transcribed with the researcher checking transcripts against handwritten contemporaneous notes.

While all key informants freely participated in interviews, most appeared reluctant in supplying the researcher copies of official agency documentation involving professional and leadership training. One content matter expert explained this reluctance was in order to "protect the organisation's image from being tarnished" if documents were released without first being sanctioned by head office. Two key informants subsequently referred the researcher on to their corporate research and ethics units. After contact was made with

representatives from these units, the researcher was required to complete a research application to access required documentation.

### 4.5.4 Formulating Interview Questions

Research questions were informed by reviewing the literature relating to police leadership and leadership development, notably Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013), Campbell and Kodz (2011), Neyroud (2010) and (Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a). In addition, the researcher drew upon personal knowledge and experience of police education and training, which included approximately 13 years undertaking a variety of roles, ranging from regional and district training portfolios to lecturing roles at the police academy. Questions utilised during face to face interviews with content matter experts were framed to address the research questions, specifically Question 1 (learning methods) and Question 2 (other factors which facilitate and inhibit leadership development). Specifically, questions canvassed methods, policies, procedures and practices associated with each agency's professional and leadership development. In addition, questions were posed regarding evaluations and reviews of education and training within respective jurisdictions. Finally, based on their subject matter expertise, key informants were asked opinions concerning the effectiveness of their agency's approach to developing police leaders, including any perceived strengths and weaknesses associated with the process.

Data derived from interviews were supplemented and triangulated with a review of various policy and training documents supplied by jurisdictions relating to professional and leadership development. Bowen (2009, p. 1) defines document analysis as "systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material". Bowen (2009, p. 1) goes on to explain the process requires that data "be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding,

and develop empirical knowledge". Combined with other qualitative research methods, document analysis is frequently used as a way of triangulation: "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (Denzin, 1978, p. 291). The qualitative researcher is expected to draw upon multiple (at least two) sources of evidence, that is, to seek convergence and corroboration through the use of different data sources and methods (Yin, 1994).

Documents analysed comprised policies, procedures and practices involving professional and leadership development of senior officers from police agencies, the subject of the research, together with the AIPM. In addition, reviews of education and training were also sourced. For instance, agency representatives who were interviewed agreed to supply relevant jurisdictional documentation. Other documents were secured by formal means, involving applications to research and ethics committees attached to police agencies. In addition, searches were completed accessing open source (online) documents pertaining to each jurisdiction, the subject of this research, including the AIPM. All documents obtained were subsequently systematically reviewed, resulting in data being obtained which filled information gaps after interviews were conducted with key informants.

### 4.5.5 Limitations

The study initially aimed to obtain comprehensive documentation associated with professional and leadership development from each participating jurisdiction. While all participants freely discussed relevant policy and frameworks, as mentioned earlier, some were more reluctant to provide comprehensive documentation, which prevented full comparison across jurisdictions.

Participants from two jurisdictions explained they possessed good general knowledge of professional development of commissioned officers within their respective jurisdictions.

However, both participants acknowledged their knowledge of current professional development of some policies and procedures relating to senior police officers were somewhat limited. For instance, one participant had only recently commenced duties relieving in their corporate education and training position. Another participant acknowledged lacking intimate knowledge of some aspects of policy and frameworks associated with professional development within his police jurisdiction. Despite these limitations, this participant was an experienced commissioned officer having participated in various professional development interventions provided by the organisation throughout their extended policing career. More generally, this study is somewhat limited by its reliance on a single key stakeholder's view of a jurisdiction's approach to leadership development. Their view represents their perception, and may be coloured by individual circumstances. Requirements or expectations associated with their position with the organisation may also dictate the views they present to an external inquiry, such as this research project.

This section outlined the methodology applied in the first study comprising semi-structured interviews with content matter experts. The ensuing section will introduce the methodology associated with the second study, involving a survey questionnaire with participants at the centre of this study: commissioned officers in the QPS.

## 4.6 Study 2: Survey of Perceptions

### 4.6.1 Background

Every three to four years, since the enterprise bargaining (EB) process commenced in the early 1990s, the QPCOUE enters into fresh EB negotiations with the (Queensland) State Government. In preparation for EB negotiations, the QPCOUE routinely surveys perceptions of members via a survey questionnaire containing a broad array of EB issues, including police award conditions, remuneration, work conditions, rank structure and professional

development. Since the EB process commenced between the QPCOUE and State Government, there have been about six iterations of EB surveys. As mentioned earlier, this survey leveraged off the existing EB process by eliciting participants' perceptions regarding their developmental experiences as leaders across a range of variables, involving professional and leadership development.

### 4.6.2 Survey Design

The survey instrument (see Appendix 2) was drawn from content analysis of available survey questions, two pilot groups, the literature review and reviewing QPS documentation, including pertinent policies and procedures. The questionnaire comprised eight parts and 54 items. Part 1 (items 1–7) contained personal variables (education level, age and gender) and joint personal-situational variables (rank, duties performed, total years of service). These meaningful response categories were developed to reflect the demographic make-up of commissioned officers.

Parts 2, 3, 4, 5 and 7 of the questionnaire involved various items dictated by the QPCOUE executive and framed to elicit responses to address specific EB issues. The remaining parts – Part 6 (workplace challenges) and Part 8 (leadership development), were constructed as items designed to specifically address the research questions.

Part 6 (items 35 and 38) contained various items involving workplace challenges, including sources of support to meet those challenges. The workplace challenge items were generated by reviewing the related literature and examining relevant QPS documents. These documents included policy and procedures pertaining to welfare related support, together with focus group feedback from QPCOUE executive members. Items also involved the extent to which officers found their work challenging, together with the extent to which they felt they had control over their workload.

The leadership development items (43–53) in Part 8 were generated from reviewing: related literature; previous iterations of EB questionnaires; feedback from QPCOUE executive members and focus group participants; and relevant QPS policies and procedures. All items in the survey were anchored by a five-point scale except for items 43, 45 and 46, which were anchored by a seven-point scale (see Appendix 2). The use of both five and seven point scales was considered appropriate for these items. Wisberg and Bowen (1969) demonstrated in their seminal paper that respondents can generally make up to seven distinctions.

### 4.6.3 Pilot Survey Questionnaire

Definitive research undertaken by Gardner (1978) advocated the use of pre-testing to eliminate any ambiguities or difficulties in survey instruments. Two pilot studies were conducted with a total of eight people comprising two groups of four. The first group included non-police professionals who provided feedback on any perceived ambiguities or difficulties in the wording of the survey design. Reactions from participants resulted in some minor modifications to the wording of the questionnaire. The second group comprised four recently retired commissioned officers. These participants focused primarily on questionnaire content to ensure complete coverage of the subject matter. Feedback from participants also culminated in further minor changes to items within the questionnaire.

### 4.6.4 Sample

The highly-unionised nature of the senior police workforce is reflected in the fact that at the time the study took place, 300 out of a total of 310 commissioned officers were paid-up members of the QPCOUE (2016), equating to over 96% of the population. Over a three-week period in December 2015, the survey questionnaire was emailed to these 300 QPCOUE members, with the approval and support of the union. QPCOUE members had previously agreed to provide their email addresses to the union. The survey could not be sent to the

remaining QPCOUE members, who elected to “opt out” of the survey by failing to supply their email accounts. Participants were emailed a link by the researchers, on behalf of the QPCOUE executive, to their personal email address, utilising LimeSurvey software. The link directed participants to the questionnaire, where participants first read details associated with the survey. Research details included confidentiality, support mechanisms available, if required, and voluntary participation details, including an agreement to participate prior to commencing the survey. Previous piloting of the instrument indicated the survey would take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

### 4.6.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Data analysis included descriptive statistics, t-tests, bivariate correlations and multivariate analysis of variance MANOVAs. A sequence of descriptive statistics was conducted for officers’ socio-demographics, correlates and enforcement variables. All categorical variables (and recorded interval variables) were summarised using frequencies and percentages, while interval variables were summarised using means (M), standard deviations (SD) and score ranges. Descriptive statistics described and summarised the characteristics of the research sample in terms of variables or combination of variables, as well as exploring data collected. T-tests and MANOVAs were used to detect any differences between groups of police officers. These groups were based on variables including rank and years of experience. Finally, statistical analysis was employed that aimed to make meaningful inferences about the data presented. The following discussion will present Study 3 involving semi-structured interviews with commissioned officers.

### 4.6.6 Limitations

As previously alluded to in Section 4.6.1, this study made use of this regular surveying process which involved inherent limitations. The primary goal of the broader QPCOUE survey was to obtain officers' perceptions regarding the EB process. The union's own prepared questions focused on industrial relations issues linked to enterprise bargaining with the employer (the state government), however the researcher was able to add 15 additional questions tailored to this study. Adding further questions may have over-extended the length of the survey instrument and raised concerns from the QPCOUE executive. Subsequently, the data which informed this research was drawn from the analysis of the quantitative data comprising these 15 questions, in some cases supplemented with questions already contained in the instrument. As with the other studies in this thesis, the method only offers insight into the *perceptions* of participants, not necessarily the objective 'reality' that they are perceiving.

## 4.7 Study 3: Semi-Structured Interviews with Senior Police

The third and final study comprised semi-structured interviews with 20 QPS commissioned officers as members of the QPCOUE. Interviews elicited work related experiences that impacted on their development as a leader. In addition, participants' perceptions were obtained involving factors that facilitated and hindered their developmental experiences as leaders in the QPS.

The target group of commissioned officers in this study comprised senior serving police officers responsible for large and diverse portfolios, who were subject to heavy workloads and busy work commitments. Due to participants' time constraints, the option of convening large groups of officers to undertake structured group discussions was deemed impractical and replaced with face to face interviews. Interviews presented the most convenient method of securing access to individual participants and deriving participants' perceptions on a

broader range of pertinent issues aligned with this research, together with gaining a richer and deeper understanding of leadership development. As Taylor and his research team noted, one distinct advantage qualitative interviews have over other methods is the ability to probe deeply and derive in-depth insights from subjects (Taylor et al., 2015).

### 4.7.1 Formulating the Interview Questions

Questions used in the face-to-face interviews were guided by the literature in particular research conducted by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) comprising elements of assessment (feedback), challenge and support. The structured element of the interview incorporated three main thematic questions, with prompts based on the questionnaire used in Study 2. After obtaining demographics details, participants were asked a series of questions including three core questions that focused on their development as leaders in the QPS. The core questions align with the three research questions which the overall study is predicated on. First, each participant was asked to reflect on their police career, when they felt their leadership changed, together with learning outcomes achieved. This question aimed to address the first research question involving what learning approaches were more likely to enhance their development as sworn leaders.

Next, officers were asked when their development as a leader was “enhanced” or “taken forward”, and conversely, when they felt their leadership development was impeded or “set-back”. This question was designed to address the second research question which focuses on factors that facilitate or hinder learning approaches aimed at developing leadership capabilities of sworn officers.

Finally, participants were asked to recall when they felt “stretched” or taken out of their “comfort zone” as leaders—including the type and extent of feedback and support received during these experiences. This final question was designed to inform the third research

question regarding the extent to which an officer's development as leader was influenced by aspects of challenge, feedback and support.

### 4.7.2 Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken with four participants, based on the previously referred three thematic questions. Pre-testing questions using pilot studies is recommended as a means of reducing mistakes in later research (Bryman, 2003). One subject was a current serving commissioned officer at the rank of inspector. Remaining participants had recently retired from the QPS, each with over three decades of sworn policing experience, and comprised one former superintendent and two retired inspectors. To replicate conditions adopted in the study, pilot interviews adopted a semi-structured approach and were electronically recorded. Based on participants' responses minor modifications were made to the wording of questions with some questions added in support of the three main three thematic questions.

### 4.7.3 Participants

Participants for this study involved current serving QPS commissioned officers at inspector, superintendent and chief superintendent ranks, which as mentioned earlier comprised a total population of 310 officers. This target population in this study was restricted to 300 officers who were current QPCOUE members. As previously highlighted, the remaining ten officers were not included as they were not financial members of the union. Due to the specialised nature of the study within a highly homogenous population, it was anticipated saturation would be reached at an early stage of the interviews, i.e., after questioning about 20 participants. After an initial analysis of 15 participants, which represents about 5% of the total population, saturation had been reached. A further five interviews were conducted, representing approximately 6.5% of the total population of commissioned officers. Clarke,

Braun, and Hayfield (2015) considered 15 to 20 interviews as a suitable sample size for larger style “doctoral” research.

### 4.7.4 Recruitment

First contact with potential participants was made by the QPCOUE president who advised members of the pending research. Potential participants were subsequently primed for contact by an email sent by the QPCOUE president alerting them to the upcoming EB negotiations and urging them to participate. Targeted participants were selected through random stratified sampling from a member list supplied by the QPCOUE. The complete list was broken up into sub-lists by rank and random sampling undertaken from each sub-list (see Table 4.1 below). Inspectors comprised the majority of commissioned officers with 252 officers or 83.33% of the population. A total of 42 superintendents comprised 14% of commissioned officers with eight chief superintendents making up the remaining 0.027% of the population. A total of 14 inspectors were sampled in this study and they comprised 5.6% of the inspector population. Four superintendents (9.52%) and two chief superintendents (0.25%) were also interviewed. This study intentionally represents an oversampling of more senior ranks consisting of superintendent and chief superintendent to compensate for the small number of officers at those ranks.

**Table 4.1 Sampling Percentages for Interviews**

| Rank | Total population Number | % of total population | Numbers interviewed in sample | % of total population interviewed |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Inspector** | 250 | 83.33% | 14 | 5.6% |
| **Superintendent** | 42 | 14.00% | 4 | 9.52% |
| **Chief Superintendent** | 8 | 2.67% | 2 | 25% |
| **Total** | **300** | **100%** | **20** | **N/A** |

The researcher then forwarded participants an initial contact email (see Appendix 3) including a full description of the study. As noted in Appendix 3, this email stated the researcher would follow up email contact with a phone call which occurred in all cases, and usually within 48 hours of the introductory email.

All serving officers invited to participate agreed to be interviewed. One officer failed to respond to the email and subsequent inquiries revealed this individual had recently retired and was no longer a serving QPS member. The member list was then "topped-up" by randomly choosing another inspector who subsequently agreed to participate. One serving officer (a superintendent) informed the researcher by email of their willingness to participate but was immediately unavailable due to being on an extended overseas assignment. It was determined waiting several months for this officer's return would unduly delay the process. Therefore, another superintendent was randomly chosen, and subsequently recruited to "top-up" the sample. Subsequently, a 100% response rate was obtained.

This high response rate can be attributed to members of the target population being primed by an email sent by the QPCOUE president alerting them to the upcoming EB negotiations and urging them to participate. The president also informed members of the partnership formed with the researcher to collect EB data on the union's behalf. The researcher is a former long-serving member of that relatively small community and in many cases was already familiar to numerous participants, either in person or by reputation. Therefore, a high degree of trust was established between the researcher and the target population owing to union support together with the researchers' previous affiliation with the QPCOUE and QPS. Potential participants were also motivated to participate as the timing of data collection coincided with commencement of the EB process. Previous EB surveys conducted independently by the union enjoyed high response rates reflecting a motivated and engaged QPCOUE membership.

More than two and a half years had elapsed since the implementation of the internally driven QPS reform (2013) and the Keelty Review's (2013) recommendations comprising wide-ranging organisational change. However, no formal review or evaluation of reform measures had been completed at the time of this study. QPCOUE members may have felt "additional" motivation to participate in this study to "voice their views" on reform measures and processes. Finally, owing to their senior levels in the organisation, the target population was actively interested in leadership, which is a topic of constant discussion within police circles as well as industrial disputation. Procedures

Arrangements were made to meet face to face with the 20 participants. Formal consent was sought by providing a full description of the study including confidentiality and voluntary participation procedures. Officers were also provided a written consent form and information sheet. All participants interviewed either signed the consent form or provided an email acknowledging they had read and understood the consent form and information sheet (see Appendix 3).

Interviews were digitally recorded after agreement was secured from officers. All participants agreed to be interviewed at their place of work. Interviews were conducted in either the officers' private work office or in a separate interview room where privacy was afforded. Interview locations ensured interruptions were minimised and participants felt comfortable to speak confidentially.

Audio recordings were transcribed and subjected to an initial reading to identify broad themes. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 13) define the semantic analysis approach as one where "themes are identified within the explicit or surface meanings of the data and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said or what has been written". This latent approach "goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts to identify or

examine the underlying ideas, assumptions, conceptualisations and ideologies" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 13).

### 4.7.5 Confidentiality

According to the 2015–2016 annual statistical review, 8% of females make up the ranks of commissioned officers (QPS., 2016a). Three out of the 20 officers (15%) across all ranks were selected in this study representing an oversupply of female officers in proportion to the overall population (0.08%). Owing to the small number of female commissioned officers in the QPS population, a conscious decision was made to oversupply female commissioned officers sampled in this study. All references to gender and rank were removed so participants could not be identified except in rare cases where revealing rank or gender did not assist in identifying the participant. Due to the small population and relative paucity of female senior officers, this approach ensured confidentiality was preserved.

### 4.7.6 Coding of Quotations

When different ranks are discussed in this thesis, the following terms will be used interchangeably: sergeant (supervisor); senior sergeant (middle manager), inspector (senior manager); superintendent and chief superintendent (executive). To protect participants' anonymity and to ensure responses were treated confidentially, superintendents and chief superintendents are grouped together and assigned a separate code to inspectors. Superintendents and chief superintendents are also grouped together as both ranks are broadly defined as executives. For example, **In5** describes interviewee number 5 with the rank of inspector and **Is5** is interviewee 5 with a rank of either superintendent or chief superintendent. Throughout the ensuing discussion, the terms "interviewees", "participants" and "officers" will be used interchangeably.

### 4.7.7 Saturation

As discussed earlier, saturation was achieved at ***n*** of 15, with an additional five officers recruited to round off the sample to 20 participants. It is postulated early saturation was achieved because the nature of the study was extremely specialised. Additionally, the target population was highly homogenous. For example, the officers' average age was about 50 years with the majority recruited into the QPS in their early to mid-20s and subsequently had experienced approximately three decades of continuous service within the same organisation, with a more or less homogenous organisational culture. In addition, the population was characterised by other homogenous elements including gender, educational background and training, and development experiences.

### 4.7.8 Thematic Analysis

Interviews conducted with participants were professionally transcribed and read and checked for accuracy by comparing responses against the researcher's handwritten contemporaneous notes. A codebook, using an Excel spreadsheet, was developed based on the first reading of the data. The codebook was modified, where required, through a process of testing the codebook by randomly sampling content via "inter-rater" reliability analysis. Through a process of discriminatory analysis, the codebook was subsequently condensed. The codebook consequently contained a manageable number of items allowing sufficient capture of data variability, which was applied for the complete sample set.

Clarke et al. (2015) expanded upon six stages of thematic analysis articulated by Braun and Clarke (2006), comprising: (i) familiarisation; (ii) coding; (iii) searching for themes; (iv) reviewing themes; (v) defining and naming themes; and finally (vi) writing the report. A description of the thematic analysis undertaken in this study is described immediately below consistent with the stages listed by Clarke et al. (2015).

#### *4.7.8.1 Familiarisation*

The researcher acquired an in-depth knowledge of the data through manually interrogating each transcript by reading each transcript twice and listening to audio recordings, particularly where meaning was unclear or needed clarification. As recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 205), the researcher purposely read words in each transcript "actively, analytically and critically" in order to make greater sense and meaning of the data.

#### *4.7.8.2 Coding*

The researcher undertook a process of manually interrogating each transcript and systematically coding the data (Neergaard, Olesen, Andersen, & Sondergaard, 2009) in an Excel spreadsheet. The coding process was structured under each question where initial patterns and themes began to emerge.

#### *4.7.8.3 Search for Themes*

From the initial coding process, the researcher clustered together different meaningful chunks of data (Kramer, Hall, & Heller, 2013) into major and minor themes. The goal of this process was to try to make sense of the data in order to address the research questions.

#### *4.7.8.4 Reviewing Themes*

The researcher subsequently reviewed themes through a process of repeated coding (coding upon coding). This process was completed to confirm all pertinent insights were revealed, discrepancies removed, together with guaranteeing "drifting into an idiosyncratic sense of what the codes mean" (Schilling, 2006, p. 33) was avoided.

#### *4.7.8.5 Defining and Naming Themes*

Each theme was then assigned a name together with a brief summary attached. This process assisted in drawing out conceptual clarity of themes, together with providing a guide to assist in compiling the final report (see Clarke et al., 2015).

#### *4.7.8.6 Compiling the Report*

By the end of the six-step process, the researcher was fully immersed in the data. This intimate knowledge and subsequent reflection allowed the researcher to weave a coherent narrative reflecting the richness and depth of the interview data. Themes provided a framework upon which to systematically analysis the data. Conclusions were then drawn through a process of analysing themes both individually and collectively (see Clarke et al., 2015).

## 4.8 Limitations

As noted in the introductory chapter, it is acknowledged that this study does not enable causal conclusions to be drawn. Rather, data obtained was gleaned from the *perceptions* of commissioned officers', predicated on (amongst other variables), their lived work experiences, regarding what developmental methods best facilitated their progression as leaders. The results are based on *recall*, with the associated subjectivity. As also alluded to in Chapter 1, participant's insights were therefore likely coloured by the fact that they were a select cohort of "winners" who had expertly navigated a gruelling and protracted path to the upper echelons of an arguably cloistered establishment. As far as key informants providing insight into the "non-partisan" characteristics of leadership development approaches within their agency, the opinions were still somewhat limited to the participants' subjectivity.

## 4.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided a description of the research approach aimed at addressing the research aims and questions. The mixed methods approach applied in this study was overviewed together with associated underlying theoretical assumptions. A description of the data collection methods and sources applied for the three studies was also provided. The following chapter will describe results derived from the first study involving semi-structured

interviews with content matter experts drawn from the eight police jurisdictions and the AIPM. To provide context, the initial discussion will outline commissioned officer leadership development in Australia including a description of the AIPM, including its role, function and key education and training deliverables targeting senior police leaders.

# Chapter 5. Study 1: Study of leadership development policy frameworks in Australia

## 5.1 Introduction

This initial study explores various aspects of how commissioned officers develop the art of leadership. This study will view leadership development through a broader lens by investigating how police jurisdictions throughout Australia develop senior leaders. As noted previously, Study 2 and Study 3 will focus on providing an in-depth analysis of commissioned officer development within the QPS. The research questions and methodology employed in this study will be briefly described, followed by discussing the results of the analysis.

As previously highlighted in Chapter 3, there is little scholarly inquiry into leadership development in policing or how police learn the art of leadership. Within an Australian policing context, no published research was found on leadership development. To address this gap, the research comprised semi-structured interviews with content matter experts, representing each major police jurisdiction in Australia and the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM). Perceptions from experts were sought on a range of professional and leadership development issues involving commissioned officers. Apart from leadership development, senior and executive levels in policing undertake various professional development, including honing their skills as counter terrorism commanders.

The first research question sought to identify what methods best facilitate how senior police officers develop their leadership. To inform this question, content matter experts identified methods applied by their jurisdiction to enhance the professional and leadership development of commissioned officers. As previously highlighted, various factors can have positive (see Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Kodz & Campbell, 2010;

Neyroud, 2010; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b) and negative (see Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2010b) effects on how police leaders develop. Therefore, the second research question sought to identify what factors (other than methods) constrained or facilitated how senior police leaders developed their leadership. Content matter experts informed this question by providing responses concerning approaches, practices and policies applied to enhance the professional and leadership development of commissioned officers within their respective jurisdictions.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with content matter experts drawn from eight police jurisdictions across Australia, together with an AIPM representative. Missing or incomplete information was supplemented by accessing secondary data ranging from online reports, reviews and information gleaned from each jurisdiction's official website. In addition, data was derived by examining relevant jurisdictional documents voluntarily supplied by some jurisdictional experts. These reports included material not freely available online. As detailed earlier in Chapter 4, the QPCOUE asked police unions in each jurisdiction to recommend suitable subject matter experts to participate in this study. The researcher interviewed nine subject matter experts by telephone, using a semi-structured interview format. Each interview was electronically recorded and transcribed to ensure accuracy and to support analysis. Interview data was coded in an Excel spreadsheet and manually interrogated where common themes arose.

Throughout the ensuing discussion, interviews will be referred to as either "subject matter experts", "content matter experts" or "jurisdictional experts". To provide context, the chapter will first present an overview of commissioned officer professional and leadership development within Australia, together with an outline of the AIPM, including its brief history and the role, functions and services provided. Initially, a snapshot of statistical

information concerning police jurisdictions is presented, together with a brief description of rank structures associated with commissioned officers in each police jurisdiction within Australia.

Within Australia, each police organisation is administered by an independently elected government (Fleming & O'Reilly, 2007). All police jurisdictions are governed at a state level, with the exception of the Australian Federal Police (AFP), which is administered by the Commonwealth Government (Finnane, 1990). Content matter experts were drawn from all police jurisdictions in Australia, namely the AFP, Northern Territory Police (NTP), New South Wales Police Force (NSWPF), Victoria Police (VICPOL), Tasmania Police (TASPOL), South Australia Police (SAPOL), Western Australia Police (WAPOL) and the QPS.

Table 5.1 provides some indicative statistics from the eight police jurisdictions, being the subject of this study. Current statistics were not readily available from some jurisdictional websites, nor were they accessible through publicly available sources. Except for the AFP, all jurisdictions surveyed were originally formed over a century ago. As mature organisations, each jurisdiction evolved with unique police traditions, protocols and customs. The size of populations policed varied significantly between states, which reflected wide variations in police populations in each jurisdiction. The most populous states of Queensland, Victoria and New South Wales comprised almost 80% of the civilian population, while the remaining 20% of the population were drawn from the remaining five states and territories. Large variations were also evident concerning total geographical areas administered. WAPOL, for instance, provided policing services to a geographical area 40 times the size policed by TASPOL, and the NSWPF had approximately ten times the total police personnel

of TASPOL. Predictably, police populations for each jurisdiction varied dramatically between states and territories.

The total number of commissioned officers compared to the total number of sworn police officers in each jurisdiction was expressed as a percentage and averaged approximately at 3.88%. However, percentages between jurisdictions varied widely with NSWPF (5.45%) possessing more than double the percentage of commissioned officers in the QPS (2.5%). As discussed in Chapter 3, reform measures, in part, explain these large variations in percentages, as evidenced in the QPS Review (2013) (QPS., 2013), which resulted in the removal of nearly 25% of commissioned officer positions. Differences in the size and composition of each state and federal police organisation, together with percentages of officers, mirrored the varied responses jurisdictional experts provided, concerning the nature and availability of developmental opportunities on offer to commissioned officers.

**Table 5.1 Statistical Information Relating to Australian Police Jurisdictions**

| | QPS | WAPOL | SAPOL | TASPOL | VICPOL | NSWPF | NT POLICE | AFP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Year formed** | 1864 | 1853 | 1838 | 1899 | 1853 | 1862 | 1911 | 1979 |
| **Jurisdictional population** | 4.82M | 2.62M | 1.7M | 515,000 | 5.937M | 7.77M | 245,700 | N/A |
| **Geographical area km$^2$** | 1.73M | 2.53M | 983482 | 68401 | 227416 | 800642 | 1.34M | N/A |
| **Total personnel** | 14301 | 8901 | 5671 | 1747 | 17670 | 20629 | 1829 | 6657 |
| **Total sworn police** | 11877 | 6808 | 4549 | 1272 | 14948 | 16693 | 1403 | 3550 |
| **Total Com. officers (CO)** | 306 | 225 | 148 | 57 | 417 | 917 | 48 | 190 |
| **% CO to sworn population Approx. average: 3.88%** | 2.5% | 3.3% | 3.2% | 4.71% | 3.09% | 5.49% | 3.42% | 5.35% |

Source**:** Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS, 2017); Australian Federal Police (AFP, 2015a); Australian Federal Police (AFP, 2015b); Australian Government Geosciences (AGG, 2017); Department of Police, Fire and Emergency Management (DPFEM, 2016); Government of South Australia (SA.Gov, 2016); Northern Territory Police (NTP, 2017); NT Police, Fire and Emergency Services.(NTPFES, 2015); NSW Police Force (NSWPF, 2015, 2016, 2017); Queensland Police Service (QPS., 2016a, 2016b); South Australia Police (SAPOL, 2016); Tasmania Police.(TASPOL, 2017); Victoria Police Force (VICPOL, 2018a); Victoria Police (VICPOL, 2016); Western Australia Police (WAPOL, 2016); Western Australia Police Force (WAPOL, 2018a).

Not surprisingly, a comparison of rank structures for commissioned officers between jurisdictions surveyed also revealed considerable variation. Note: By referring to the table immediately below, ticks: ✓ connote jurisdictions possess that rank while crosses ✗ indicate that rank doesn't exist. For instance, the total number of ranks possessed by individual jurisdictions varies significantly, from as little as five (TAS, AFP and NTP) to a maximum of eight (NSWPF & SAPOL). Except for NTP and AFP, each jurisdiction possesses unique rank structures. Commissioner (or the equivalent chief commissioner), deputy commissioner and assistant commissioner were the only ranks commonly applied across all jurisdictions. The non-standardised approach to rank structures reflects that despite the Federation of Australia in 1901, states and territories have continued to evolve as separate and independently governed entities. Different jurisdictional reforms over recent decades have culminated in the removal of some ranks in state/federal police agencies. In spite of this, commissioned officer rank structures within Australian police jurisdictions have remained steadfastly hierarchical. As highlighted earlier in Chapter 3, and discussed further in the ensuing analysis, such structures only serve to reinforce the persuasive "rank-based" police culture.

**Table 5.2 Commissioned Officer Ranks in Australian Police Jurisdictions**

| Rank | QPS | WAPOL | SAPOL | TASPOL | VICPOL | NSWPF | NTP | AFP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Inspector** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| **Chief Inspector** | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| **Superintendent** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Commander** | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Chief Superintendent** | ✓ | ✗ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| **Assistant Commissioner** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Senior A/Commissioner** | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ | ✗ | ✗ |
| **Deputy Commissioner** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Commissioner or Chief Commissioner** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Total no. ranks** | **6** | **6** | **8** | **5** | **7** | **8** | **5** | **5** |

Source: Department of Police and Emergency Management (DPEM, 2010); Australian Federal Police (AFP, 2018); New South Wales Police (NSWPF, 2018); Northern Territory Police Museum (NTPMHS, 2018); Queensland Police Service (QPS., 2016a, 2016b); South Australia Police (SAPOL, 2018); Victoria Police (VICPOL, 2018b); Western Australia Police Force (WAPOL, 2018b)

Expert participants regularly highlighted the role played by the AIPM in developing their commissioned officers, warranting a brief discussion of the role, history and services of this educational provider. Additionally, the AIPM is considered by police jurisdictions as the peak body for providing professional and leadership development within Australia and New Zealand (Herrington, 2017). The Australia Police College was founded in 1960 and renamed the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM) in 1995. The AIPM provides senior management, executive development, education and consultancy services at the national level for Australasian police and public safety agencies. The institute comes under the administration of the AFP and all AIPM staff are AFP employees. Since 1960, approximately 6000 police officers have attended courses at AIPM, including over 3000

commissioned officers. The institute has a number of its programs accredited under the Tertiary Education Qualification and Standards Agency (consequential amendments and transitional provision) Act 2011. The AIPM Board of Control (BoC) is the effective governing council of the Institute which comprises all police commissioners of Australia and New Zealand. The AIPM operates within the corporate governance framework of the AFP and its policies apply in all aspects of the corporate functions of the AIPM (AIPM, 2018).

The AIPM provides a diverse array of development offerings targeting police and emergency service professionals, ranging from short sharp-focused workshops to programs that attract postgraduate qualifications (Herrington, 2017). Two flagship accredited programs provided by the AIPM comprise the "Graduate Certificate in Applied Management" and the "Graduate Diploma in Executive Leadership". The programs target public safety officers at inspector rank (or equivalent) for the graduate certificate, and the graduate diploma caters for the rank of superintendent (Herrington, 2017; Mitchell & Casey, 2007). In terms of executive level, the AIPM offers the "Bridging the Gap: Management to Executive" program, comprising an eight-day residential component targeting Executive Level 2 (EL2)/Superintendent to Senior Executive Service 1 (SES1)/Commander level officers (AIPM, 2018).

One significant developmental offering provided by the AIPM comprises the Australia New Zealand Police Leadership Strategy (ANZPLS). This strategy is endorsed by all jurisdictional commissioners and provides a unique development opportunity to enhance the leadership capabilities of current and future police leaders within both countries. ANZPLS is an 18-month non-academic program designed to develop future police leaders and includes five-day workshops. This program targets inspector level and above and is focused on police officers with the potential for promotion, in particular those with the capabilities of becoming senior executives (AIPM, 2018). The ANZPLS uses the 70:20:10 learning approach to blend

individually-focused classroom learning with action learning and development (training undertaken within the workplace) (Flynn & Herrington, 2015).

### 5.1.1 Australian and New Zealand Policing Advisory Agency (ANZPAA)

Further evidence that police commissioners recognise the benefits of cross jurisdictional partnerships and joint sharing of information was apparent with the formation of ANZPAA in 2007 (Proud, 2013). According to Proud (2013, p. 13), the ANZPAA performs a variety of functions, including the "development and promotion of professional standards". Police commissioners from the eight Australian police jurisdictions, together with New Zealand police, agreed to jointly develop and implement a broad professional framework titled the Australia New Zealand Policing Profession Framework, which recently replaced the Australian and New Zealand Police Professional Strategy 2013–2018 (ANZPAA, 2017). According to ANZPAA (2017), the purpose of the framework is to "support and enhance" the profession of policing. The framework shown in Figure 5.1 below contains three professional domains: (i) professional development; (ii) education and training; and (iii) body of knowledge. In summary, the earlier discussion outlined: the research methodology; the key characteristics of each Australian state/territory and associated police jurisdictions; the AIPM's role and functions and a brief description of cross jurisdictional partnerships; and the strategies associated with the professional development of police officers in Australia and New Zealand. The discussion will now turn to analysing data derived from semi-structured interviews with jurisdictional experts, supplemented where necessary with relevant jurisdictional policy and training documents.

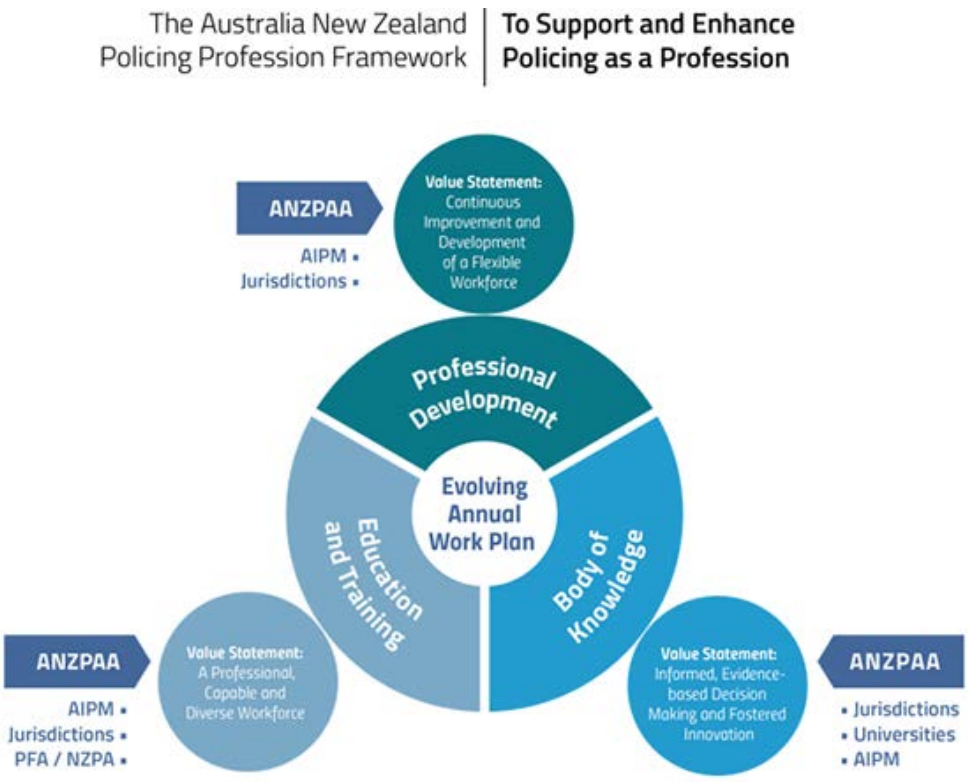


Figure 5.1 The Australia New Zealand Policing Profession Framework.
*Source: Australia and New Zealand Policing Advisory Agency (2018) (ANZPAA, 2018)*

## 5.2 Analysis of Interviews with Jurisdictional Experts

The following discussion will initially introduce the professional and leadership development of commissioned officers across Australia, prior to describing development methods and practices applied by each police jurisdiction. The only standardised professional development for commissioned officers throughout Australia consisted of offerings provided by the AIPM. The Australian and New Zealand Police Professional Framework is a non-prescriptive, non-legally binding agreement among participating jurisdictions. Instead, the framework provides jurisdictions with broad direction and guiding principles concerning the professional development of officers. Jurisdictions surveyed appeared generally to align their professional and academic offerings with both strategies. However, no central body or agency was vested with an overarching authority to enforce or maintain consistent standards for professional development of police officers throughout Australia. In practice, this

allowed jurisdictions discretion to devise and apply tailored professional development programs to address jurisdictional priorities.

When comparing and contrasting professional and leadership development methods and practices, each jurisdiction adopted a unique or tailored way to develop their commissioned officers, reflecting an autonomous and independent approach. As discussed earlier in Table 5.1 aside from the AFP, all Australian police jurisdictions are over 100 years old with professional developmental practices deeply imbedded in long-standing traditions and customs that shape how police become leaders. The analysis also revealed all jurisdictions popularly relied upon a combination of at least five or more learning methods to facilitate professional and leadership development of senior leaders: (i) formal or structured training; (ii) challenging job assignments; (iii) tertiary education; (iv) informal networking; and (v) unstructured mentoring. Each method will be described in more detail in the ensuing discussion in Section 5.2.1. To this end, expert participants asserted one of the key strengths associated with their development of commissioned officers involved the number and array of opportunities available.

### 5.2.1 Developmental Philosophy: Centrally-Controlled Verses a *Laissez Faire* Approach

A comparison of developmental approaches between jurisdictions revealed marked differences and similarities. For instance, for rank and file officers (i.e. constable through to senior sergeant), jurisdictions universally adopted a centrally controlled (or organisationally dictated) and highly structured developmental philosophy centred on prerequisite promotional requirements. However, no uniform learning philosophy underpinned education and training for upper echelons of each jurisdiction, reserved for commissioned officers. Instead, jurisdictions adopted either an ‘organisationally controlled’ or a student centred (i.e., “*laissez faire”*) approach to commissioned officer development. Organisationally-controlled

development (practised by three jurisdictions) was highly prescriptive in terms of the development provided and tethered to completing courses and programs required for promotion. A student-centred or driven ("*laissez faire*") approach (adopted by five jurisdictions) had no prerequisite promotional programs, with individual officers expected to take responsibility to charter their own development. Reasons why jurisdictions adopted their respective developmental philosophies was not investigated in this study. However, it is likely approaches evolved over time with individual organisations subjected to different influences, coupled with jurisdictions remaining steadfast in administering policies and practices, independently from each another.

Experts from jurisdictions who adopted a *laissez faire* approach admitted some officers elected not to engage in any leadership development by "opting-out". However, officers could still elect to undertake various professional development offerings, including "in-house" training and development programs provided by external providers such as the AIPM. The comment by jurisdictional expert (X:3) typically reflects the *laissez faire* or "learner-directed" approach evident in most jurisdictions where opportunities were available, but officers ultimately determined their own individual developmental requirements.

> I mean basically you do the course [AIPM course] and then you, according to your position, you sort of develop yourself … There's a capability framework that they want us to refer to, but as for actual training or stuff like that, it is generally self-driven. (X:3)

All but one jurisdiction conducted various tailored in-house development programs targeting commissioned officers' needs. However, as previously alluded to in Section 5.2, except for AIPM programs, no standardised or uniform leadership development was offered by all jurisdictions.

The analysis revealed a relationship existed between the overall size of the jurisdiction and its ability to cater for officers' development. One expert, for instance, explained the small size of their jurisdiction facilitated greater agility, allowing quicker responses to addressing officers' needs.

> … we're small. It's really easy to change the direction of the boat and get decisions really quickly … because we're so small … gaps are identified quite easily by the strategic level … because they've got a gap … then we develop a specific program that we send them on. (X:4)

Two experts emphasised the small size of their jurisdictions meant ample opportunities existed to foster relationships with senior executives and external stakeholders, which contributed to an officers' long-term development.

> The only other strength with the [name of jurisdiction] is probably the size which plays into our strengths because the longer that you're in this police force … you know the executive quite well, so you're surrounded by them. I'm surrounded by them both professionally and by social means as well so you're forever developing that culture. (X: 6)

> I think because of the size you can ring somebody up and talk to somebody like I talk to other people at the university and agencies and things like that, because it's all small and you're likely to meet them on a fairly sort of regular basis at some point in time. (X:4)

Another expert explained that their jurisdiction's smaller size meant commissioned officers frequently juggled multiple roles providing additional developmental opportunities,

culminating in broader leadership experiences "…. that's the thing because we're such a small jurisdiction we have a very broad area of responsibility" *(*X:4).

Some variability also existed between jurisdictions concerning the process involved in administering the development of commissioned officers. For instance, organisations that adopted a centrally controlled approach to development, automatically managed a broader range of functions, necessitating more resources administered by dedicated units attached to HQ or the police academy. Correspondingly, jurisdictions adopting a "laissez faire" or "learner controlled" educational philosophy, comprised smaller units with fewer dedicated resources and exercised a comparatively narrow coordination role. For instance, one jurisdiction only employed a single employee to coordinate all development opportunities for commissioned officers.

All jurisdictions encouraged commissioned officers to attend AIPM programs. However, only one jurisdiction mandated successful completion of the Police Executive Leadership Program (PELP) for officers aspiring to superintendent rank. Jurisdictions did not mandate any minimum tertiary qualification for promotion to commissioned rank or beyond. Notwithstanding, jurisdictions appeared supportive of commissioned officers completing AIPM programs with accompanying tertiary qualifications.

To this point, this chapter has provided a broad overview of the eight police jurisdictions, the role of the AIPM, together with presenting an overview of how commissioned officers are broadly developed within Australia. The discussion now turns to examining specific methods employed by jurisdictions to develop commissioned officers, including mentoring, coaching, 360-degree feedback, job assignments, networking, structured training, tertiary education, action learning, and assessment centres. The following analysis revealed a patchwork of

developmental methods implemented by each jurisdiction in addressing their commissioned officers' professional development (see Table 5.3).

**Table 5.3 Selected Senior Officer Development Methods in Australian Police Jurisdictions**

| | QPS | WAPOL | SAPOL | TASPOL | VICPOL | NSWPF | NT POLICE | AFP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Structured mentoring** | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✓ (see note 2) | ✓ (see note 3) | ✗ Informal only | ✓ (see note 4) |
| **Executive coaching** | ✓ Senior executive level only | ✗ 'Academic coaches' only for courses (see note 5) | ✗ | ✗ Currently under consideration | ✗ | ✗ Feasibility being explored | ✗ | ✗ (see note 10) |
| **Formal 360-degree feedback** | ✓ Ad-hoc and unstructured | ✗ Ad-hoc and unstructured | ✗ Ad-hoc and unstructured | ✗ Ad-hoc and unstructured | ✓ (see note 8) | ✓ (see note 6) | ✓ Senior executive level only | ✗ |
| **Challenging Job Assignments** | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Formal & structured (see Note 7). | ✓ Informal only | ✓ Informal only |
| **Formal networking** | ✗ Informal only | ✓ Assorted formal events | ✓ Formal-business meeting and seminars | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✓ Formal and informal opportunities | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only |
| **Structured training** | ✓ Various voluntary short courses & workshops offered | ✓ Merit based scholarships offered | ✓ Workshops and seminars | ✓ Workshops and forums | ✓ (see note 9) | ✓ Range of focussed developmental offerings | ✓ Strongly reliant upon Sup't development program. | ✓ Various offerings outsourced to an external provider |
| **Tertiary based education** | ✓ AIPM courses + tertiary credits for qualifying courses (see note 1) | ✓ AIPM, UWA, Murdoch university courses | ✓ AIPM course | ✓ AIPM courses + UTAS | ✓ AIPM plus courses provided by various tertiary providers | ✓ AIPM and ANZSOG courses, Melbourne Business School Grad Certificate | ✓ Administers own Registered Training Organisation (RTO) | ✓ AIPM courses + Australian Public Service Commission (APSC) offerings |
| **Formal action learning** | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✗ Informal only | ✓ Workplace integrated learning | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ |
| **Assessment Centres** | ✗ Promotion purposes only | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ | ✗ Promotion purposes only | ✓ Prerequisite for Sup't Development Program | ✓ Promotional purposes only to Sup't level | ✗ |

**Table Notes**:

1. QPS has agreements with several universities offering credits for some internal promotional qualifying courses.
2. VICPOL leadership mentoring program offers inspectors and superintendents structured mentoring by senior executives.
3. NSWPF offers two structured mentoring programs: (i) Woman's Leadership program for commissioned officers (and equivalent for non-sworn members); and (ii) Inspectors undertaking the superintendent transition program are also allocated a mentor in their 12-month development program.
4. AFP: Formal mentoring program—Commonwealth Government agency run program for female participants at the Band 7/AL2 superintendent level. In-house mentoring program—Band 9 AL2s are mentored by Band 1s Commanders, AL2s Superintendents mentor Band 7s, and the Band 8s for Sergeants and the Inspectors; Maternity leave mentoring program—it is a six-month program and an external coaching service, but it's hardly known nor encouraged.
5. WAPOL: In 2016, a trial program was conducted for the band of senior executives, commander level and above. It's called the leadership circle profile program for ten people. As part of this program, participants were offered leadership coaching.
6. NSWPF offers Superintendent Development Program participants' 360-degree feedback approximately six months after commencing the course.
7. NSWPF provides "Horizon Program" targets executive levels' officers (i.e., superintendent level and above). Each officer has a developmental profile where offerings such as job assignments and formal training are matched to the officers' individual needs.
8. VICPOL offers 360-degree feedback in some developmental opportunities including the senior leaders' development program for commissioned officers.
9. VICPOL offers programs: "senior managers' development program" over 12 months targeting inspectors and an annual superintendents' engagement program comprising a one week structured training program.
10. AFP: Independent Broderick Review (2016) recommended senior leaders be allocated an independent specialist coach to assist them to apply their personal leadership action plan.

## 5.3 Commonly Applied Development Methods

As highlighted earlier, all jurisdictions provided varied professional development opportunities for commissioned officers. The ensuing discussion describes methods jurisdictions commonly employed in the professional and leadership development of commissioned officers. To warrant inclusion and analysis, learning methods needed to be applied by at least two or more jurisdictions for the development of commissioned officers. Assessment centres, for instance, were discarded after the analysis revealed that only one jurisdiction applied this method, specifically for developmental purposes.

Methods were clustered under the three categories reflected in the 70:20:10 learning model (McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988). For example, “on the job learning” (70%), included job assignments and action learning; “relationships” (20%) incorporated mentoring, coaching and networking, and “formal learning” (10%) comprised formal (structured) training, tertiary education and 360-degree feedback.

### 5.3.1 On the Job Learning

Undertaking challenging job assignments proved universally popular within jurisdictions. Experts cited a broad range of examples which incorporated job assignments, including heading up “special or major projects”, relieving or “acting-up” duties at higher rank, secondments to other government agencies, overseas deployment and undertaking research-based scholarships. The popularity of job assignments was likely attributable to the inherent flexibility of this method in developing officers; a key strength noted by experts, and highlighted in the police literature (see Mastrofski, 2018). Job assignments were allocated by senior executives, mostly in an informal, *ad hoc* and arbitrary manner, as evidenced by the following expert participant’s observation:

> We don't necessarily have an expression of interest … They (senior executives) know certain people but not necessarily everyone. If you don't put yourself upfront they clearly don't view you as a leader or whatever anyway because you're not selling yourself (X:3).

Opportunities to access job assignments varied dramatically between jurisdictions. For instance, a subject matter expert light-heartedly described the ample opportunities to "act-up" into a higher rank position. "Yeah [name of jurisdiction] police [have] more actors than Hollywood… (X:6).

However, another content matter expert lamented that resourcing restrictions often forced officers to "juggle" responsibilities in their current role, in addition to the newly assigned job challenge, highlighted in the remark below.

> If any of us could come offline and do a project we would. We'd love to but because we just do them as part of our business and it gets to be hard sometimes because you're running multiple things … because we are small ... People just do it off the side of their desk (X:4).

Another constraint cited in administering job assignments involved potential costs associated with secondments to external agencies and the need to maintain "business as usual"—reflected in the following comment:

> … some of our challenges will be in terms of the time … The work still has to be done but you know pie in the sky at the end obviously opportunity for someone to act up into that position which is a professional development opportunity … it hurts but it also obviously comes at a cost if you have someone of that senior level out of the agency for a considerable period of time. You want to be making the most of it for

> the individual experience and also for the agency in terms of that rich return on investment. There needs to be something that comes back … (X:2**).**

Some subject matter experts raised concerns regarding senior executives reportedly misusing job assignments for ulterior motives with commissioned officers allocated unpleasant or unattractive assignments. "…done under the auspices that it will be good for your professional development to undertake this role" (X:6).

Another officer articulated 'hidden motives' behind some job assignments:

> There are a whole load of reasons why people are given an opportunity. Not all of them are necessarily career enhancers … There are no guarantees with it and the reality is that there is no guarantee that it's genuine. You know what I mean like we're giving you this opportunity to develop you or we're giving this opportunity to get rid of you (X:7).

Another expert argued that the efficacy of job stretch (or challenging) assignments in terms of developing officers' capabilities was contingent upon the attitude and skills of the individual concerned.

> …they [job stretch assignments] have a certain value up to a point. They can be more valuable if the person approaches them with the right understanding … They might be the smartest person in the world but they still don't have that reflective capability (X:5).

In summary, job assignments proved a universally popular way to develop officer leadership and were administered overall on an informal and *ad hoc* basis. The significant value attached to job assignments as a good way to develop police leaders also accords with the scholarly discourse (see Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009;

Wedlick, 2012). Despite its widespread appeal, the informal way job assignments were administered meant jurisdictions conducted no formal evaluation to establish its efficacy. In addition, the process involved assignments being vulnerable to arbitrary decisions with concerns regarding the intent and authenticity behind the process. Furthermore, strong oversight, feedback and self-reflection was notably absent from the process. Feedback was subsequently delivered in an ad hoc and spasmodic fashion. Coupled with time constraints inherent in senior officers' busy workloads, this process would leave participants little time to conduct meaningful self-reflection. This dilemma consequently poses obvious questions concerning the quality of learning outcomes derived from this method.

### 5.3.2 Action Learning

Action learning was not widely used in a formal sense for developing commissioned officers, with only two jurisdictions applying this method in any formal of systematic fashion. However, many jurisdictions reportedly employed this method, albeit in an unplanned and *ad hoc* manner. It was evident some content matter experts were unfamiliar or somewhat confused by the term "action learning", which necessitated the researcher providing clarification. Some experts asserted confining the use of this method to lower ranked officers. Notably, the AIPM expert representative saw great utility in action learning, explaining how this method was embedded within its Women and Public Safety Leadership Program. Therefore, action learning was not a commonly used method to develop officer leadership, with most jurisdictions applying this method in an *ad hoc* manner.

In summary, jurisdictions relied heavily on officers acquiring leadership informally via on-the-job learning, primarily through *ad hoc* job assignments. As discussed earlier, this finding accords with scholarly research and aligns with the 70% of development roughly attributed to

informal, work-based learning, as reflected in the 70:20:10 learning model. Put simply, police leaders appear to learn best from doing (Neyroud, 2010).

### 5.3.3 Mentoring

Mentoring proved a popular method of developing leaders within jurisdictions, primarily through the ubiquitous "informal mentoring". All expert participants readily acknowledged this ingrained and influential police practice where senior executives unofficially sponsored less experienced protégés by providing sage advice, guidance and assistance.

> …we don't necessarily get mentoring, you know, formalised or whatever mentoring. It's basically a matter of do you have a sponsor or are you being identified through the succession planning process—informal process it is (X:3).

In contrast, fewer than half of all jurisdictions invested in any type of formal or structured mentoring (see Table 5.3). However, despite the lack of application, all experts lauded the relative merits of formal mentoring – as reflected in the following comments.

> …mentoring is without doubt the key to good leadership practice within an organisation. I think a co-ordinated systemic mentoring program is invaluable (X:7).

> Everybody doesn't get it [i.e. the value of formal mentoring]. So there are undoubtedly opportunities for improvement (X:3).

Experts also stressed the importance of tapping into the wealth of knowledge and experience from corporate and public sector mentors.

> We need to get into that mentoring space both for external opportunities so to mentor perhaps with the CEO of a successful business or another government agency … so that's formal mentoring (X:2).

Experts also stressed timing was critical in terms of when to assign mentors to inexperienced leaders, as evidenced in the following remark:

> … if someone is trying to be super professional they'd go, 'right, here we go, you're now promoted and this superintendent or someone will be your mentor'. Some people have gone off and had that but there are too many people who have gone and done it themselves unless you've got some particular guidance (X:3).

An expert participant championed the importance for less experienced leaders to "model" the behaviours of senior ranking officers, who proved to be inspirational leaders.

> I'm a great believer in role modelling and you've got to have really strong inspirational people at that level … you need to have very strong role modelling from the commissioner level down (X:1).

In brief, despite hailing its potential benefits, most jurisdictions did not possess a formal mentoring program. Instead, the majority of jurisdictions appeared reliant upon informal mentoring processes together with informal networking, which will be explored in Section 5.3.4.

### 5.3.4 Networking

While formal networking was not a commonly applied method, experts recognised the developmental value derived by informal networking. Some jurisdictions, for instance, organised formal social gatherings, although there was no evidence such opportunities were purposely linked to officers' individual development plans. However, all jurisdictions provided informal opportunities for officers to gather socially and network with peers and superiors. Informal networking usually resulted as a by-product – an organised event, such as formal face-to-face training. For instance, experts cited attendance at residential style

programs offered by the AIPM as valuable opportunities for officers to network informally with colleagues and officers from other jurisdictions. “When you talk to people about the AIPM, that’s [networking] one of the most significant things they get out of that” (X:5).

Other experts described opportunities provided for commissioned officers to engage in informal networking, including conducting regular seminars and business lunches as get-togethers for senior police leaders.

The importance placed upon informal networking by all jurisdictions accords with the literature regarding the significance of this form of relationship based learning (Österlind & Haake, 2010; Schafer, 2010a). Research by Österlind and Haake (2010) found informal networking was a particularly well suited method for female officers to facilitate problem solving with senior experienced leaders.

### 5.3.5 Executive Coaching

Executive coaching was not popularly used within jurisdictions, with its application seemingly in its infancy. For instance, two jurisdictions explored the feasibility of executive coaching, while three jurisdictions recently introduced this method and had yet to evaluate its effectiveness. Another jurisdiction provided executive coaching to a small cohort of executive level officers that targeted chief superintendent level and above. The practice of jurisdictions applying executive coaching sparingly by focusing on the smaller executive cohort is likely attributable to the expensive nature of this method. Executive coaching can prove costly and may prove prohibitive for the corporate sector to introduce (Sherman & Freas, 2004). In brief, despite its attractiveness, jurisdictions reported rarely using executive coaching, which appeared to be in its fledgling stages in some jurisdictions.

In summary, learning leadership through informal work-based relationships, such as the universally popular unstructured mentoring and informal networking, were considered by

jurisdictions as an important way to professionally develop commissioned officers. As noted by Neyroud's (2010) research in the UK police, it attests that informal learning acquired through building relationships with peers and superiors was found to be a valuable way for senior officers to acquire leadership.

### 5.3.6 Formal Learning (10%): Conventional Structured Training and Development

Structured or formal training and development proved universally popular, with all jurisdictions facilitating this method through a combination of in-house and/or external providers. Formal training traditionally included face to face courses, workshops or seminars, which were characteristically short in duration and sharply focused on technical competencies or professional knowledge and skills. As discussed earlier in Section 5.1 formal training provided by the AIPM was a commonly used approach by all jurisdictions. Those reliant upon organisationally (or centrally) controlled approaches to officer development appeared to concentrate efforts on structured in-house training programs targeting participants for promotion. Little similarity existed between jurisdictions concerning the content of their in-house formal training programs, which appeared dictated by home-grown requirements and tailored to meet unique jurisdictional demands. In brief, conventional structured training was commonly used to develop officer leadership, facilitated either through a blend of short, sharply focused in-service opportunities together with programs hosted by external providers such as the AIPM. This finding aligns with police scholarly research, which emphasises how traditional classroom training experiences are still highly valued in contemporary police leadership courses (Rosser, 2010). However, after reviewing police leadership training in the UK, Neyroud (2010) cautioned continued reliance on expensive classroom training, citing the 70:20:10 learning model as impetus for police agencies to consider alternative leadership development practices. Neyroud (2010, p. 107) sagely observed that "whilst there are some

aspects of police training that may present unique challenges … policing is not so unique that we can ignore developing good practice from elsewhere".

### 5.3.7 Tertiary Education

All experts reported that their jurisdictions supported commissioned officers engaging in tertiary studies as a means of professional development. Participation in tertiary education was not confined to senior ranks with most jurisdictions encouraging officers' involvement in university education early in their careers. The enthusiasm that jurisdictions embraced tertiary education is likely linked to attempts by police jurisdictions to professionalise their occupation (see Green & Gates, 2014) and to develop non-technical skills.

> It's all police craft and you don't trade that out. In terms of building those soft skills, I think it's better if we do that through university education (X:9).

A content matter expert described the cultural shift which occurred in their organisation concerning officers' willingness to readily embrace tertiary education as:

> I'm amazed at how many people are taking up university… from a policing perspective it's not part of the culture normally and to have so many people taking it up… it's just like a cultural shift which I didn't anticipate (X:4).

As discussed earlier in Section 5.1 tertiary qualifications were acquired after officers completed AIPM programs. In addition, most jurisdictions forged independent agreements with various tertiary providers allowing members to gain tertiary credits for completing accredited in-house development. Additionally, half of all jurisdictions owned and administered their own registered training organisation (RTO), which entitled them to bestow various qualifications after participants completed in-house programs. Jurisdictions' emphasis on supporting police to gain tertiary qualifications accords with the scholarly

literature which highlights education as a key mechanism in facilitating officer's leadership (see Schafer, 2009, 2010a).

### 5.3.8 360 Degree Feedback Instrument

For the purposes of this discussion, the 360-degree feedback method was categorised under formal development, as jurisdictions that applied this method did so in a formal or structured way. Surprisingly, despite the 360-degree feedback being described as a promising tool to develop police leaders (see Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Neyroud, 2010), only three jurisdictions applied this method for commissioned officer development, with two jurisdictions reserving its use to executive level ranks. Jurisdictions that did not utilise this method relied on formal feedback derived from compulsory performance management processes undertaken by line managers.

One expert cautioned use of the 360-degree feedback method, especially in more mature organisations.

> It's a two-edged sword, the 360 … It's also prone to a number of reporting errors … They [360-degree feedback instruments] vary in quality significantly … but in a more mature organisations it's less valuable because … leaders are more mature in their capacity than they are engaged with their people around them … they have a pretty accurate understanding of self-awareness of who they are (X:5).

Within scholarly discourse, the 360-degree feedback instrument has received some tentative support for its application in policing (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010). However, this method was not used commonly within jurisdictions surveyed. Additionally, some experts appeared cautious about its application and appeared more comfortable relying on feedback derived from officers' performance appraisal process.

To summarise, far from relying on one method, all jurisdictions provided officers with a variety of opportunities to enhance their leadership. This finding was supported by Neyroud (2010) in the UK police, who found a range of learning methods needed to be integrated into senior officers' development. Jurisdictions used at least five or more methods to develop commissioned officers. These universally popular methods can be broadly aligned with the 70:20:10 learning model as follows: job assignments (work-based development), informal networking and unstructured mentoring (relationships); and structured training and tertiary education (formal learning). The 70:20:10 learning model has been modified to reflect the results of this analysis (see Figure 5.2). The extent to which participants specifically supported the 70:20:10 learning model is difficult to determine. For instance, a total of three (out of eight) jurisdictional experts indicated their organisation formally endorsed this approach and, therefore, it is feasible such participants may have been merely regurgitating that learning model.

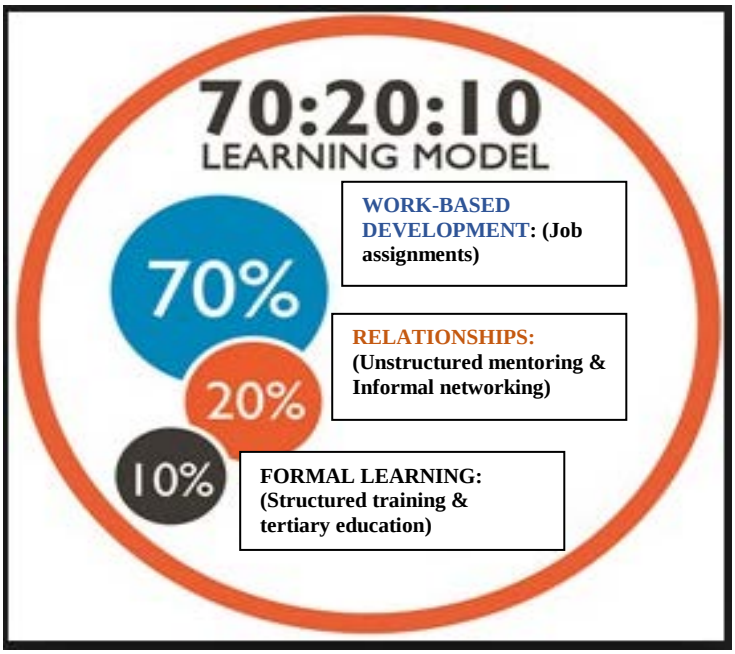


Figure 5.2: 70:20:10 Learning model and commonly applied leader development methods across Australian police jurisdictions
*Source: adapted from 70:20:10 Learning Model (see McCall et al., 1988)*

The qualitative nature of this study did not lend itself to quantifying the extent to which individual methods were utilised. However, based on the frequency and depth of experts' responses, job assignments presented as the most popularly deployed methods by all jurisdictions and could arguably be touted as the primary means by which police officers developed their leadership. Despite commonalities in terms of methods applied, each organisation adopted a unique developmental approach, with content, style and delivery of opportunities seemingly tailored to meet jurisdictional requirements, together with the penchants, experience and education of senior executives.

Despite multiple methods being utilised to develop leaders, jurisdictions seemingly expended more time, support and resources directed towards facilitating formal learning interventions, primarily in-house development programs, and to a lesser extent, tertiary training. Based on the 70:20:10 learning model, the 10% comprised formal learning which attracted most support, yet the remaining 90% of informal learning (i.e. work-based development and relationships) received comparatively little concerted effort. Herrington (2017) saliently observed this phenomenon, commenting on how police agencies saw the 10% of formal learning as the start and finish of their development efforts, despite informal learning being responsible for the bulk of officers' development as leaders. The following discussion will present findings derived from the data concerning factors other than developmental methods, which facilitated and hindered the development of commissioned officers.

## 5.4 Factors that Facilitate and Hinder Leadership Development

Jurisdictional experts were asked a series of questions concerning how leadership development was administered within their individual jurisdictions including supporting policies, practices and procedures (see Table 5.4). Experts' perceptions were also sought concerning the relative strengths and weaknesses of their respective jurisdictional approaches

in developing commissioned officers. After analysing responses, nine key themes emerged which enhanced and/or hindered the leadership development of commissioned officers. Themes were subsequently clustered into four main categories (hereafter described as key factors). Each key factor and associated themes will be explored in the following discussion.

i. *Education and training processes* (i.e. robust and transparent selection procedures employing valid evaluation processes);
ii. *Strategic alignment* (i.e., articulating coherent development strategy; establishing robust frameworks; and forging strategic alliances);
iii. *K*ey s*upport and engagement (i.e.* securing top management support and engendering on-going engagement); and
iv. *Integrated development embedded in organisations' infrastructure (*i.e. creating a fully integrated process with the provision of sufficient resources).

## Table 5.4 Selected Policy/Procedures for Developing Senior Leaders in Australian Police Jurisdictions

| Procedures | QPS | WAPOL | SAPOL | TASPOL | VICPOL | NSWPF | NTP | AFP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Financial assistance (PD allowance)** | ✓ Dedicated annual allowance for com. officers only | ✓ Central funding allocated (see note 19) | ✓ Commissioner's reserve scholarship funding | ✓ Central funding allocated (see note 14) | ✗ (see note 11) | ✗ Part financed tertiary scholarships fund | ✓ Centrally funding available for tertiary studies | ✓ (see note 1) |
| **Prerequisites for promotion** | ✓ Assessment centre for Sup't & C/Sup't ranks. Merit based process | ✗ Merit based process. Grad. Cert. desirable | ✗ Apply to promotions board. Merit based process | ✓ Assessment Centre and PELP (AIPM) pre-requisites for Sup't rank | ✗ Merit based process | ✓ Completing internal development programs | ✓ Assessment Centre to qualify for superintendent rank (see note 5 & 6) | ✗ Broderick Review, 2016 recommendations (see note 2 & 3) |
| **Capability framework** | ✓ Leadership capability framework adapted from Qld Public Service | ✓ WA police capability framework provides officer behaviour requirements | ✓ South Australian Police Capability Framework | ✓ Framework sets promotional criteria for all ranks | ✓ Capabilities outlined for different ranks | ✓ Framework linked to National Police Leadership Strategy | ✓ Rank Capability framework (see note 7) | ✓ Overarching organisational capability framework |
| **Leadership development learning models or frameworks** | ✓ 70:20:10 learning model + 'assessment challenge, support model | ✓ (see note 20) | ✗ | ✓ Three tier developmental model (Vertical integration) (see note 15) | ✓ Four tiers of development linked to ranks | ✓ 70:20:10 learning model + four-dimensional model | ✓ Three phased approach to be illegible for Sup't rank | ✗ Broderick Review 2016 recommendations[4] |
| **Specific policy for commissioned officers** | ✓ Professional development allowance + pre-requisites for promotion | ✗ Whole of service learning and development strategic plan | ✗ | ✓ Executive Leadership Development Program policy | ✗ Broad organisational rank qualification policy (see note 12) | ✓ (see note 8) | ✓ Broad promotion policy and Sup't rank qualification | ✗ |
| **Agreements or MOUs with educational providers** | ✓ Agreements with several universities for tertiary credits (see note 21) | ✓ Strategic partnerships forged with UWA and Murdoch Uni | ✓ Strategic partnership with Un. SA | ✓ Partnership with Uni. of Tas. (see note 16) | ✓ Partnership with University of Tasmania (UTAS) | ✓ MOUs with Western Sydney University, Melbourne Business School | Not known | ✗ |

| Procedures | QPS | WAPOL | SAPOL | TASPOL | VICPOL | NSWPF | NTP | AFP |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Recent Reviews or evaluations** | ✓ Internal leadership development in progress. No outcomes available | ✓ Learning circle profile program (trial) currently under evaluation | ✓ (see note 18) | ✗ | ✗ | ✓ (see note 9) | ✓ Current internal review of promotion practices | ✓ (see Note 4) |
| **Evaluation process** | ✓ First level participant feedback | ✓ First level participant feedback + promotional process feedback | ✓ First level participant feedback | ✓ (see note 17) | ✓ Kirkpatrick's & Patch evaluation models (see note 13) | ✓ Kirkpatrick's evaluation model (see note 10) | ✓ First level participant feedback | ✓ Organisational wide staff survey every five years |

## Notes:

1. AFP: Executive level officers are entitled to 100% reimbursement for successfully completing relevant tertiary studies.
2. AFP: Broderick Review (2016) recommended all officers undertake leadership programs as part of the promotion process.
3. AFP: Jurisdictional expectation that superintendent level and above will complete the AIPM graduate diploma level qualification.
4. AFP: Broderick Review (2016) recommended senior executive members adopt a leadership shadow or equivalent model and develop personal leadership action plan.
5. NTP: Promotion process from senior sergeant to superintendent currently being reviewed. Officers required to obtain Graduate Certificate in Management (AIPM). Additionally, officers must complete either a three-phase development program or undertake a one-day assessment centre to be illegible for promotion.
6. NTP: Superintendents must complete Police Executive Leadership Program (PELP) with graduate diploma qualification (AIPM) to be illegible for promotion to commander rank.
7. NTP: Two distinct rank capability frameworks apply for senior sergeants through to superintendent rank and for commander rank through to assistant commissioner.
8. NSWPF: Various policies exist including the four-dimensional model, competency acquisition, formal learning program, career management and performance management.
9. NSWPF: Research recently undertaken of leadership development approaches in various organisations. Internal report due for release.
10. NSWPF: Developmental programs re-certified every three years by the internal "academic board" where academic content receives executive endorsement.
11. VICPOL: Central funding confined to development activities meeting professional certification requirements.

12. VICPOL: Newly promoted inspectors and superintendents undertake one-week development engagement program.
13. VICPOL: Patch model evaluation involves an executive leadership and management qualification in partnership with UTAS applying more sophisticated evaluation approaches.
14. TASPOL: Central funding is allocated for professional development of commissioned officers.
15. TASPOL: Three tier development model comprising: Tier 1 – officers activity seeking promotion; Tier 2 – officers wanting professional development only; Tier 3: officers not seeking professional development. The 70:20:10 learning model is incorporated within the Executive Leadership Development Program.
16. TASPOL: Agreement with University of Tasmania (UTAS) where all officers can complete undergraduate degree free by scholarship via "Tertiary Education Assistance Scheme".
17. TASPOL: Planning underway to form a research committee with UTAS to access how higher education impacts upon police performance.
18. SAPOL: Recent internal review undertaken regarding equal opportunity for woman in policing. No outcomes or findings currently available.
19. WAPOL: Some fully funded academic scholarships offered + employee study grants covering up 50% of costs – as determined by the Board of Studies.
20. WAPOL: A "one on one approach" to professional development is aligned to the organisation's performance management system titled "4me2achieve" used to identify strengths and develop perceived weaknesses through career planning and professional growth.
21. QPS: Officers who complete in-house promotional qualifying courses including "management development program" (MDP) and "constables development program" (CDP) are entitled to claim tertiary credits from various tertiary providers who have signed agreements with QPS.

### 5.4.1 Establishing Valid and Reliable Education and Training Processes

The need to establish valid and reliable education and training processes to develop senior leaders was emphasised by jurisdictional experts, underpinned by effective selection procedures and assessment processes. Jurisdictional experts expressed a desire for robust and transparent selection procedures to best identify who should participate in officers' professional development; a finding consistent with the scholarly research in corporate environments (see Dalakoura, 2010; Leskiw & Singh, 2007) and policing (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010). However, in practice, most jurisdictional experts admitted selection processes fell short in terms of desired standards of rigour and transparency. A few jurisdictions applied systematic and rigorous selection procedures, whereby officers' needs were matched with organisational requirements, reflected in the following expert's assertion:

> …because we're a dedicated division, we have some really robust selection processes about the quality of the people and the suitability of the people on the programs that we match to the individuals (X:2).

Most experts described selection criteria as opaque and decisions were seemingly made in an arbitrary and *ad hoc* manner, which was colourfully described by the following expert's comments:

> …the organisation has its own wild and wacky means of selecting people at times (X:7).

Even when selection panels were convened, some jurisdictions acknowledged that panels were not shackled by policies and procedures governing the process which allowed poor practices to go unheeded, as evidenced by the following expert participant's observation.

> You won't be able to find any document that talks about who should go to AIPM and how they are selected … once a year we'll just put out an expression of interest and they'll get assessed and then Exec Committee will decide. They'll pick who they want to go for whatever reasons they choose, I suppose. Yeah, but there is no documented policy around any of those (X:9).

Most jurisdictional experts admitted senior executives played a major hand in determining which officers were selected for developmental opportunities, which often culminated in bosses making a "captain's call" or "captain's pick", as highlighted in the following comments:

> The AC just says to me, "This person … needs to go on this program" because they know that person and they know their strengths and weaknesses. The decision happens really quickly… from the top (X:4).

> It's basically captain's choice … There are political reasons. There are organisational reasons. There are probably reasons that you don't know or understand. Sometimes you can read too much into it. Sometimes you can think why does that person get to go there or why does somebody not get to go? You might think, 'oh that's just political' but there may be a good reason for it but these reasons generally aren't shared (X:7).

Expert participants' also revealed issues concerning the evaluation of professional and leadership development of commissioned officers. Experts unanimously asserted that evaluation processes needed to be implemented in a systematic and robust way. However, once again there appeared to be a gap between espoused principles and applied practice as most experts admitted their jurisdictions failed to adopt consistent and reliable practices when evaluating developmental programs. Most experts confessed their jurisdictions employed a

“laissez faire” approach to evaluating developmental opportunities, which lacked sufficient rigour.

> We’re very poor at measuring and reviewing the effectiveness of leadership within the organisation and leadership development within the organisation (X:7).

The research confirms police organisations readily invest money and resources into developing their leaders, however, a major drawback was the lack of systematic evaluation into the effectiveness of different developmental approaches (Clapham, 2018; Herrington, 2017; Neyroud, 2010).

The following anecdotes summed up the general views from experts regarding jurisdictional attempts at evaluating professional and leadership development:

> …that’s (evaluation) probably not done in a really robust way … traditionally we haven’t got much further than the reaction sheets … we’re very good at sort of rolling out stuff. We sort of just forget about it … I think it’s just often just seen as all too hard (X:9).

> …leadership development isn’t really reviewed or evaluated at all and that’s a problem because there is no effective analysis and that causes problems because most opinions or judgements about its value are ad hoc opinions…There are some central statistics kept … no real sort of evaluation … and there is no evaluation upon completion. There is no requirement to report back or anything like that (X:7).

Most agencies appeared solely reliant upon student perceptions to evaluate professional development initiatives through a “tick and flick” style approach. A small number of experts asserted their jurisdictions employed thorough post-course evaluation methods. For instance, one agency partnered with a university involving a rank qualifying program which reportedly

resulted in more comprehensive evaluation processes. Apart from Herrington's (2017) comprehensive evaluation of an AIPM developmental program, the literature appears bereft of examples where police leadership development programs have been robustly evaluated. Failure to employ consistent and rigorous evaluation methods can be linked to jurisdictions' failure to apply evidence-based developmental approaches. The push to have police organisations adopt crime strategies grounded upon evidenced-based policing approaches has been emphasised within scholarly discourse (see Lum & Koper, 2017; Lum, Koper, & Telep, 2011; Tilley, Laycock, & Webb, 2002). However, in terms of police leadership development, this movement doesn't appear to have gathered traction within jurisdictions surveyed, as the penchants, education and experiences of senior executives appeared instrumental in steering the intricacies of each jurisdictional approach.

The lack of robust evaluation techniques appeared linked to mixed responses offered by expert participants concerning the overall efficacy of their jurisdictions' approach to professional and leadership development of commissioned officers. One expert, for instance, revealed their jurisdiction's developmental process was being currently reviewed. Another expert reflected on how their jurisdiction's approach was still evolving:

> From an organisational perspective I don't think we really know what we want our people to do, so we're sort of on this journey … We've still got more work to do. Personally, I need individuals to come with a case. This is the stuff that I want. It's unique and I want this, and we want the organisation to come and say, 'I want our people to do this to produce this outcome'. We're not at that level yet. (X:4)

Expert participants admitted gaps existed in leadership development training as evidenced below:

> … It's probably an area (training in leadership roles) where there is an opportunity for improvement—let's just put it that way … There are lots of gaps in training here… People just get put into the role. They've never had any training and to be honest people at certain levels just think they know it anyway. It's just a question of do you or don't you think you need training (X:3).

The importance of robust and transparent selection procedures together with consistent and reliable evaluation processes associated with commissioned officers' development has been highlighted, both in experts' commentaries and within scholarly discourse. However, in practice there appears a disconnect between a desired state expressed by experts and applied practice; leading to questions being raised concerning the efficacy of training and development provided by jurisdictions surveyed.

### 5.4.2 Strategic Alignment of Leadership Development

Expert participants stressed the need for leadership development to be strategic or outwardly focused and for it to have relevance, not just at an individual level but also in terms of organisational outcomes. The need for strategic alignment leadership development comprised three themes: (i) articulating a coherent development strategy; (ii) establishing robust frameworks; and (iii) forging strategic alliances.

The need for leadership development to be strategically aligned with organisational imperatives has been stressed within scholarly discourse in the corporate sector (see Dalakoura, 2010; Hayward, 2011). Experts, for instance, emphasised the need for jurisdictions to articulate a coherent strategic plan for developing leaders reflected in the following expert's remark:

> I think that there are policies that should exist as to how leadership development contributes to leadership within the organisation and the direction of the organisation (X:7).

A small number of jurisdictions had no dedicated developmental plan or policy targeting commissioned development. Jurisdictional experts pondered their lack of policy direction stating "I think probably we're really underdone" (X:9) and "there are [policy] gaps there" (X:7).

Other expert participants cited a diverse range of policies ranging from administering professional development allowances, composition of developmental programs and prescribing promotional requirements. However, policies were characterised as inwardly focused, highly prescriptive and lacking in strategic focus, highlighted in the following expert participants' comments:

> Our policies amount to no more than a few pages and they're really just focused on promotion and not leadership development, so I think there is work to be done… it needs to be an overarching policy (X:9).

> I think we still need to embed the policy better so individuals need to get more out of the policy… for this policy we're about 50% away … We need to control what people are doing and then demand that they do certain things so it will get better (X:4).

The lack of strategic alignment for leadership development was also evidenced in the development on offer. For instance, an expert representative criticised the quality of development opportunities for commissioned officers as *ad hoc* and lacking strategic intent:

> …the organisation has to take control and direction of the leadership and development … There has got to be an … approach that outlines expectations and then the direction, and in my view, we don't really have that (X:7).

In brief, despite acknowledging the importance of possessing a coherent strategy for developing commissioned officers, most experts admitted their jurisdictional plans were either non-existent or inadequate as summarised in the following expert participant's observation:

> These are more management policies … just administration type policies … What we're missing is a grand plan. There is no grand plan for commissioned officers (X:7).

Linked to the requirement for a coherent leadership development strategy was the necessity for leadership development models or frameworks to be congruent with organisational outcomes together with the needs of individual officers. Some scholarly attention has focused on a collective leader development framework in which leadership is developed at all levels in the organisation (Dalakoura, 2010), analogous to the police leadership model where "every officer is a leader" model, discussed earlier in Chapter 3. Some jurisdictions' models were modified from public sector frameworks or military models while others were linked to officers' rank capability requirements and tethered to promotion. Only two jurisdictional experts reported not possessing leadership development frameworks or models. A comparison of models/frameworks adopted by each jurisdiction revealed each state and territory had championed its own unique or tailored approach. For instance, the only model applied by two jurisdictions, together with the AIPM, was the 70:20:10 learning framework.

Two content matter experts attested that their jurisdictions adopted a long-term view of officers' professional development:

> We’re looking to develop an almost cradle to the grave leadership and development framework (X:9).

> We’ve got what we call ‘a pathway from cradle to grave’ ... constables to commissioner … which pretty much goes all the way through (X:2).

Some experts admitted that despite the existence of frameworks, applied practice did not replicate the implied theoretical principles which underpinned these models.

> We’d love to be in that 70-20-10 but the reality is we’re probably not (X:2),

This gap between theory and applied practice reveals clear gaps in the development process and raises obvious and unanswered questions concerning the likely reasons attributable to this divide.

Experts also asserted that their leadership development process was enhanced by establishing strategic alliances or partnerships with external education and training providers. Aside from the AIPM, most jurisdictions reported forging strong strategic relationships with a variety of tertiary institutions together with various government and corporate entities which provided a raft of professional and leadership opportunities. Jurisdictional experts also highlighted the importance of establishing relationships with other police and emergency service agencies, as evidenced in the following comment:

> Relationships are pivotal to good leadership development particularly to commissioned office rank … We do have good relationships with a broad number of providers and other agencies to facilitate opportunity (X:7).

Some experts described how arrangements with tertiary institutions enabled senior officers to access standard university courses while others explained tertiary providers modified or

tailored programs to suit individual jurisdictional requirements. A smaller number of expert participants referred to agreements struck with tertiary providers enabling officers to complete in-service programs which made them illegible to apply for cross-credits with accredited university subjects.

In summary, the analysis highlighted the critical need for police jurisdictions to adopt a strategic focus to enhance leadership development within their state or territory. Experts stressed the need for strategies to be clearly articulated and aligned with organisational imperatives together with being linked to leadership development models or frameworks. Additionally, there was universal agreement concerning the pivotal need for jurisdictions to strike strategic alliances with the AIPM, tertiary institutions and other external providers. In practice, jurisdictions appeared well advanced in forging such alliances, as evidenced by officers readily accessing professional development and tertiary qualifications. However, despite general agreement among jurisdictions concerning the need for leadership development to be strategically aligned, applied practice fell well short of espoused principles, with policies and frameworks lacking maturity and strategic intent.

### 5.4.3 Securing Key Support and Engagement

Expert participants identified a factor critical in enhancing the success of their jurisdictions' leadership development endeavours included securing top management support and engendering on-going engagement with officers. All key experts recognised the critical importance of securing key support, in the form of executive buy-in, to ensure the success of leadership development of commissioned officers; a finding reflected in corporate sector scholarly articles (see Dalakoura, 2010; Leskiw & Singh, 2007). To this end, most content matter experts asserted that senior executives were generally supportive of officers' development, evidenced through active involvement in selecting officers for development

opportunities. However, disquiet was expressed among some experts concerned with the lack of "follow-through" from top management, as highlighted in the following experts' comments:

> Half of them on the day pull out because something else has come up that's a real challenge for us ... They're too busy or they don't see it as important enough … I'll sense the disappointment in the group because they go, 'well they're not interested' … We've probably got to get more serious about that, I guess, with what our priorities are (X:9).

> Leadership development and leadership will only work when they're genuine when it's not lip service … You need a culture that values leadership and that values leadership development … it's the senior police that are setting the tone. If they're not on board then nothing happens (X:7).

Related to support from top management was the need to have officers, the target of developmental interventions, fully engaged in organisational strategies aimed at developing them. Experts agreed that jurisdictions needed to engage officers early and maintain that engagement for the duration of their careers. All jurisdictions appeared intent on engaging lower ranked officers into some type of leadership development.

> The current commissioner is very strong on people being able to undertake opportunities but also that we start developing our people quite early (X:1).

Expert participants highlighted how strategies designed to secure officer engagement in on-going development proved problematic to implement effectively in practice. For instance, one jurisdictional expert revealed a significant proportion of commissioned officers were

destined to remain at the same rank for more than two decades, challenging jurisdictional efforts to sustain engagement in continuous professional development.

> How do we keep them professionally motivated? … how do you professionally engage with somebody who has got twenty plus years as a commissioned officer in this organisation? … that is an area that we're trying to resolve (X:8).

Attempts to engage officers in on-going professional development is not a new dilemma to Australian police organisations. For instance, nearly 15 years ago, the AFP commissioner felt challenged trying to maintain engagement of senior executives in on-going professional development, despite each officer having at least 20 years to run on their contracts before compulsory retirement (Fleming, 2004). One expert asserted their jurisdiction addressed the disengagement of officers by strenuously promoting enrolment in non-police related tertiary programs:

> …they've [officers] been around for twenty-five years plus and they've engaged the program [i.e. university courses] … they don't have any intentions of being promoted and they just want to go to uni and get those skills sets (X:4).

Experts noted the pervasive rank-based culture which constricted most professional development to promotional requirements, and effectively stymied jurisdictional attempts to maintain officer engagement for those officers not chasing higher rank. Jurisdictional experts argued high withdrawal rates of officers in non-promotion linked courses was symptomatic of this lack of engagement.

In brief, top management "buy-in" was considered critical in facilitating the effective leadership development of commissioned officers. In practice, most jurisdictional experts asserted senior executives, overall, provided adequate support. However, at times some

senior executives were guilty of paying “lip-service” to the development process. In addition, experts recognised the pivotal need to sustain officer engagement in on-going professional development, however, achieving this goal in practice still appeared elusive for most jurisdictions.

### 5.4.4 Need for Integrated Development Embedded in Jurisdictional Infrastructure

The need to have leadership development embedded within the organisation’s infrastructure was emphasised by expert participants; a finding mirrored in scholarly discourse in the private sector (Leskiw & Singh, 2007) and policing (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010). Schafer (2010a) in a US study found structural barriers including deficient leadership development systems had proved to be a major impediment to officers wanting to advance their leadership.

Experts explained organisational infrastructure, notably Human Resource (HR) processes and practices, needed to be embedded with leadership development and aligned to a more holistic, integrated approach which focused an officers’ individual requirements. Instead, experts identified officers’ development, particularly at lower ranks, resembled a segmented approach, predicated on narrowly defined promotional requirements, with HR structures and policies following suit, reinforcing a “one-size fits all” approach. In some jurisdictions where commissioned officers’ development was not tethered to promotional requirements, legacy HR structures and policies remained welded in place, which failed to provide the tailored support required. For instance, a subject matter expert complained:

> I’ve had to go and seek my own development in those areas … the organisation can’t cater for (X:6).

Another expert complained lack of tailored development plans created unnecessary duplication.

> Sometimes you see a duplication of effort … someone might do a program at AIPM and then go do something similar elsewhere … there is no clear line of sight because we don't have individual development plans for people (X:9).

The segmented approach to development adopted by jurisdictions was reflected in the following expert's description of the rank-based culture which ties professional development to promotion.

> I think we got a culture that values promotion … The whole organisation is focused on promotion and the organisation builds on that … The system thrives on promotion. People will go places that they don't want to go and do things that they don't want to do on the prospect of promotion (X:7).

One jurisdictional expert criticised inherent limitations associated with rank-based promotion, explaining conventional segmented approaches stymied senior officers from achieving their full leadership potential.

> It involves us to philosophically change our views on a segmented approach to learning and development and one of those is how do I get promoted (X:5).

Another expert apportioned blame to executive level officers for their steadfast reliance on "rank-based" promotion and the subsequent constraints imposed on developing true leaders.

> It's senior police that are setting the tone [in terms of rank-based promotion]. If they're not on board then nothing happens. Senior police are very interested in their own careers. You can't blame them … It's just the way it works … They make

> people dependent on them … So I think … it that … makes it difficult to make genuine leadership possible (X:7).

A content matter expert argued that police jurisdictions needed to transition from outdated segmented approaches involving "one-off" courses to career long fragmented learning:

> We're moving beyond the sort of traditional college institute model of learning … (with officers' misguided assertions that…) "I've just do this course. I will get my senior offices' ring". There are no courses … that are going to be beneficial … you need to have your own professional learning plan about how you're going to find the knowledge and information you need to grow further in your roles and your responsibilities … and younger generations are much more comfortable with the idea of fragmented learning … that involves a more active use of social media (X:5).

The need to have supportive HR infrastructure also encompassed the provision of adequate resources, highlighted as a pivotal issue by jurisdictional experts, in properly facilitating commissioned officer development. In particular, good access to financial support to undertake developmental opportunities was commonly identified as critical for officer advancement. To this end, all representatives stated various forms of financial support were available to commissioned officers to engage in professional development. One expert contended their jurisdiction was noted for the excellent financial support provided to commissioned officers to further their development.

> Everything is funded for them and provided so I guess that's a strength in itself. We're not asking members to dig into their own pockets (X:9).

Comparing funding arrangements between jurisdictions revealed no standard or uniform approach was adopted. For instance, a small number of jurisdictions set aside dedicated

funds for commissioned officer development while most relied on a “central funding pool” or “discretionary” funds, accessible by all personnel and accessed on merit.

To summarise, jurisdictions appeared mainly reliant upon a rank-based promotional process which permeated a segmented one-dimensional approach to developing their leaders. Instead expert participants argued commissioned officers’ leadership development needed to be an integrated experience, tailored to meet the needs of individual officers and supported by a contemporary HR infrastructure, which ensures the provision of adequate resources.

## 5.5 Limitations

All participants, being experienced senior members of their respective agencies, were formally appointed to speak with authority on behalf of their organisation concerning leadership development. However, most individuals who provided the content for Study 1 were senior administrators and more or less removed from front-line roles. Their views may well reflect the ‘official’ view of leadership development in their jurisdictions, rather than the actual state of programs and approaches at a grassroots level. Their roles reflected an element of curation of the official approaches of the authorities they worked for, thus their responses may well reflect a greater uniformity of approach on a national level than is actually applied practice. Additional studies would be required in each jurisdiction to establish whether or not this is the case. This study was also constrained by the quantity of official documentation supplied from participating jurisdictions, compelling the researcher to supplement incomplete information with data derived from “open source” on-line searches. Additionally, two content matter experts were reticent to hand over internal memos and reports without prior approval from head office. Subsequent formal applications to obtain relevant documents resulted in heavy vetting of material supplied.

## 5.6 Conclusion

In summary, this study applied a broad lens focusing on commissioned officer professional and leadership development within Australian police organisations and the AIPM. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with nine content matter experts from eight police jurisdictions, together with an AIPM expert representative. The unique approach adopted by each jurisdiction when developing commissioned officers mirrored the independent and parochial way each agency administers its policing functions.

This study contributed towards addressing the first research question (RQ1) by identifying five universally popular leader development methods. These methods were used in each jurisdiction to advance the leadership of their senior officers and when viewed collectively were broadly aligned with the 70:20:10 model: (i) Job assignments (work-based development); (ii) formal networking; (iii) unstructured mentoring (relationships); (iv) structured training; and (v) tertiary education (formal learning). Jurisdictions appeared to focus efforts on formal learning in the guise of structured in-house training and tertiary education. However, informal development (i.e. on the job development and relationships) which arbitrarily comprised 90% of all learning, attracted comparatively little systematic application.

In addition, this study contributed towards responding to the second research (RQ2) question by highlighting several factors which facilitated or constrained how senior police leaders developed their leadership. In all, four major factors emerged from the analysis considered critical in enhancing or hindering the development of senior police leaders, namely: (i) education and training processes; (ii) strategic alignment; (iii) key support and engagement; and (iv) integrated development embedded in organisational infrastructure. In particular, the analysis revealed a concerning lack of robust evaluation processes undertaken by most

jurisdictions reflected in mixed views from expert participants regarding the efficacy of their jurisdiction's overall development process. The second study comprising a survey questionnaire, which focused on the leadership development of commissioned officers in the QPS, will be explored in the following chapter.

# Chapter 6. Study 2.Questionnaire findings: Perceptions of Commissioned Officers

## 6.1 Background to the Study

As previously highlighted, there is a dearth of empirical evidence to guide the training and development of police leaders (Haberfeld, 2006; Miller, Watkins, & Webb, 2009), particularly identifying what methods best enhance the development of senior police leaders (RQ1). To inform RQ1, views of commissioned officers were canvassed through a survey instrument to gauge their perceptions concerning the effectiveness of various developmental methods (see Appendix 2).

As discussed in Chapter 3, a range of factors potentially inhibit (Mitchell, 2009; Schafer, 2010b) and enhance (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a, 2010b) officers in their development as leaders. The second research question sought to identify what factors (other than methods) constrain or facilitate learning experiences of sworn police officers in their development as leaders (RQ2). Perceptions and opinions of commissioned officers were obtained through a survey to inform the extent to which factors helped or hindered their development as leaders. To add context, officers' opinions were captured on various aspects of their job, including work-based relationships and the extent to which individual support and organisational factors helped or hindered their development.

The third broad research question involved the extent aspects of feedback, challenge and support (RQ3) influenced leadership development of senior police. Once again, to inform RQ3, commissioned officers' opinions were canvassed via a survey questionnaire aimed at exploring what aspects of feedback, challenge and support affected their development as leaders in the QPS.

## 6.2 Survey Instrument: Methodology

As discussed in Chapter 4, the survey instrument targeted members of QPCOUE. The QPCOUE's coverage was confined to serving QPS commissioned officers comprising the ranks of inspector, superintendent and chief superintendent. The QPCOUE enjoys almost 100% membership of its target population and represents its 300 members on various industrial relations and enterprising bargaining (EB) matters including professional and leadership development. The researcher made use of an existing EB questionnaire used by the QPCOUE to survey its union members. As numerous survey questions were already pre-loaded that focused on broad EB issues, the researcher was subsequently constrained to adding only 15 additional questions tailored to this study.

Data was analysed using SPSS comprising descriptive statistics, t-tests, bivariate correlations MANOVAs and Cronbach's alpha. A sequence of descriptive statistics was conducted for respondents' socio-demographics, correlates and enforcement variables. All categorical variables, and re-coded interval variables, were summarised using frequencies and percentages, while interval variables were summarised using means (M), standard deviations (SD) and score ranges. Descriptive statistics described and summarised the characteristics of the research sample in terms of variables or a combination of variables, as well as exploring data collected. T-tests and MANOVAs were used to detect any differences between groups of police officers. These groups were based on various variables including rank and years of experience. The researcher was mindful of cell size, not just from a statistical perspective, as a decision was made not to use small groups, to prevent the risk that confidentiality could be breached.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the theoretical model used to guide this thesis involved the two-part leadership development model promoted by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) which comprised elements of assessment (renamed "feedback"), challenge and support as shown in Figure 6.1 below.

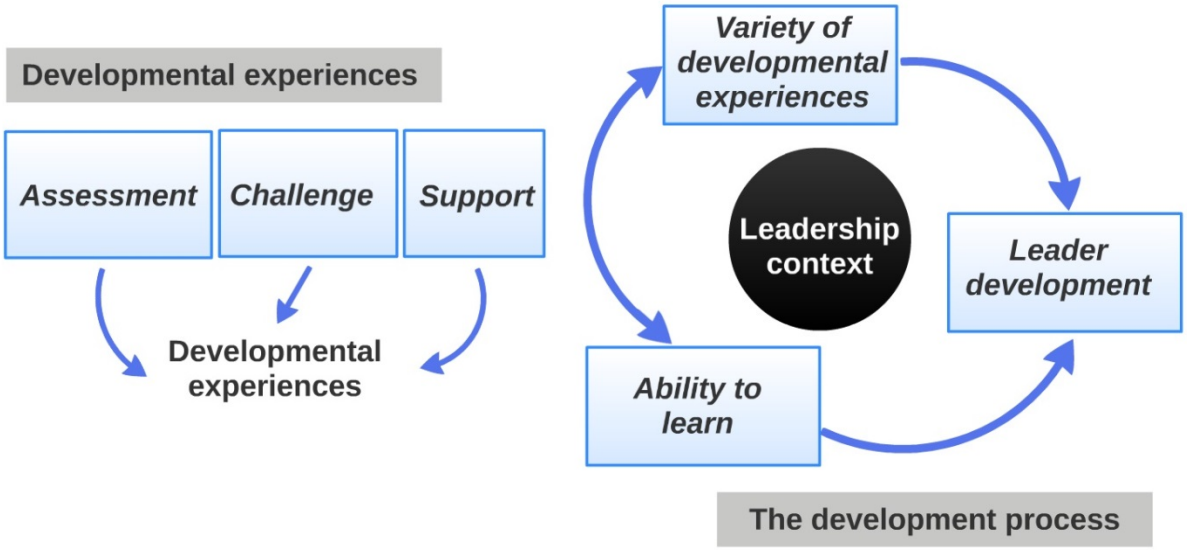


Figure 6.1 Leadership Development Process:
*Source: McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010, p4)*

To summarise, the two-part framework is based on leadership context and developmental experiences. The context component of this model has been addressed by grounding this study within the unique and challenging environment of policing. According to McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010), the second component involves "developmental experiences" underpinned by assessment (renamed "feedback"), challenge and support. As outlined in Chapter 2, the term "assessment" was replaced with the more appropriately worded "feedback", as assessment could possibly create a distorted image in officers' minds of being tested and scrutinised, with the associated threat of failure. The survey instrument aimed to capture data likely to inform these three pivotal elements of leadership development. For instance, questions concerning 360-degree feedback and assessment centres aimed to

capture officers' perceptions comprising the feedback element. The challenge component was addressed by eliciting officers' views concerning the extent to which they found their work challenging and the degree of control exercised over their work. Finally, to inform the support element, questions were posed concerning the importance of support officers derived from several key elements of social and organisational support. Results from the analysis of the survey are presented in the ensuing discussion.

## 6.3 Survey Results: Demographics

All 300 commissioned officers were invited to complete the survey, comprising 183 valid responses that equate with a response rate of 61%. Prior to data analysis, "Not Applicable" responses were re-coded as missing data, and data checked for outliers and normality of distribution. The majority of participants were inspectors totalling 149 (80.98%), with 27 superintendents (14.67%) and seven superintendents (4.35%), which broadly mirrored the rank-based distribution within the commissioned officers' population (see Figure 6.2 below). Owing to smaller participant numbers and shared job similarities, the ranks of superintendents and chief superintendents were analysed after being merged into a single rank category of "superintendents". This reduced the impact of small cell size which would otherwise have significant implications for statistical power. The means and standard deviations of key survey items are presented in the tables below—for the full sample (overall) as well as for inspectors and superintendents separately.

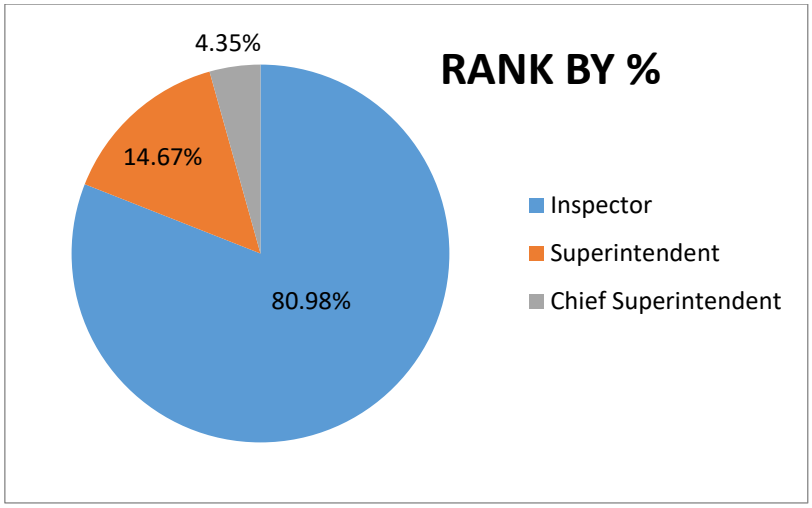


Figure 6.2 Rank distribution of survey participants.

### 6.3.1 Sex Distribution of Survey Participants

Participants comprised 169 male (92.3%) and 14 (7.7%) female senior police officers (see Figure 6.3 below). The high proportion of male officers reflects the prevailing macho police culture and entrenched police recruitment practices, which have traditionally favoured male officers (Cordner & Cordner, 2011). In addition, studies reveal higher attrition rates for female police officers compared to male colleagues (Brough & Frame, 2004). As Silvestri (2007) noted, police organisations need to introduce more work-friendly environments, including part-time work aimed at increasing female retention rates and allowing women to enjoy longer policing careers (Silvestri, 2007).

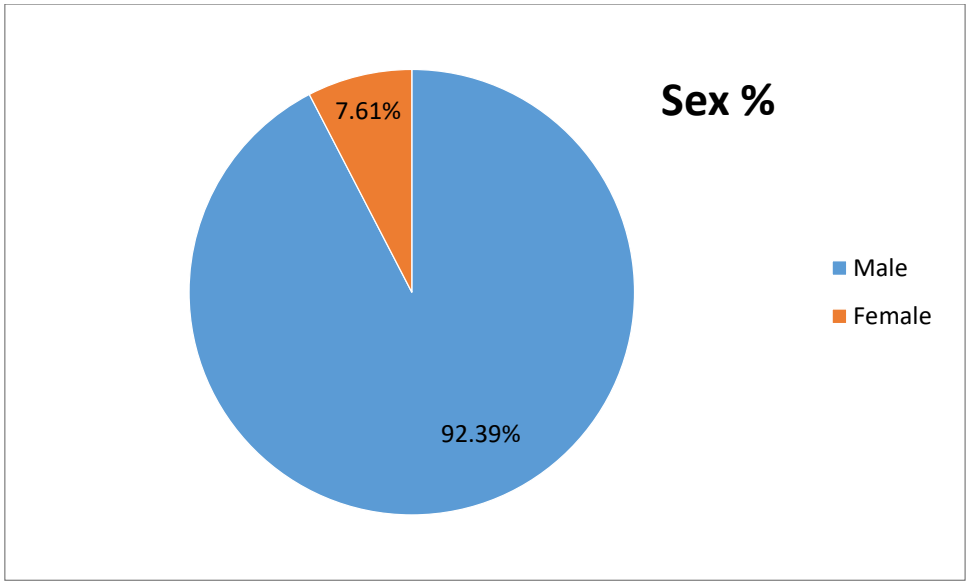


Figure 6.3 Sex distribution of survey participants

### 6.3.2 Average Age and Length of Service

Participants ranged in age from 40 to over 55 years, with most officers aged between 45 to 54 years (75.4%) (see Figure 6.4 below). Overall, participants were mature with a mean age of 50 years and an average length of service of between 25 to 39 years (87.4%). The "long" average duration of service reflects participants' senior levels in the organisation, together with officers electing to spend their entire working lives with the one employer. These results support the contention made earlier, that inherent cultural and organisational characteristics encouraged officers to adopt a "cradle to the grave" approach to their careers in policing. Policing as an occupation traditionally enjoys very low rates of attrition (Alexander, 1999; Burke, 1989) and high job security (Brown, Cooper, & Kirkcaldy, 1996). Most participants (60%) indicated that their primary role/function was operational, with the remainder spread among corporate, training and support functions.

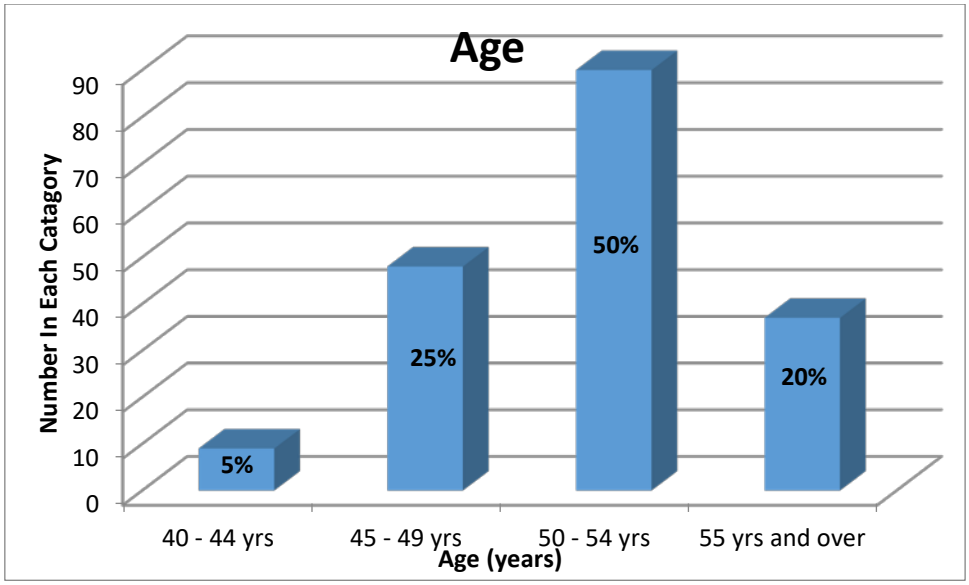


Figure 6.4 Age distribution of survey participants

### 6.3.3 Educational Qualifications

Most participants' possessed post-graduate qualifications (61.2%) with approximately three-quarters of officers possessing at least an undergraduate degree (see Figure 6.5 below). Participants' high education levels can be attributed to various factors, including support from the QPS to undertake tertiary studies. For instance, constables and non-commissioned officers who complete in-house qualifying courses for promotion can obtain credits towards undergraduate and post-graduate degree courses (Maher, 2012). After attaining commissioned rank, officers can also access professional development programs at the AIPM, which attract tertiary qualifications (Herrington, 2017).

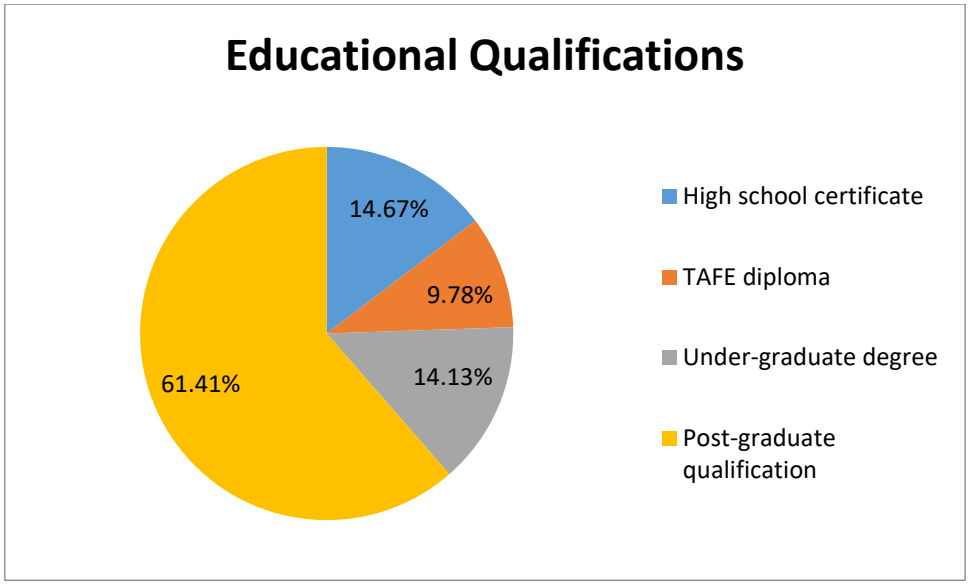


Figure 6.5 Educational qualifications

## 6.4 Preferred Methods for Leadership Development (RQ1)

The first research question sought to establish what methods best facilitate the development of senior sworn police leaders (RQ1). Officers were provided ten developmental methods and asked the extent to which each method best prepared them as leaders. Participants' responses were captured on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all prepared, 4 = neutral and 7 = very much prepared) (see Table 6.1 below). Feedback from the questionnaire pilot suggested that officers needed clarification of the term "action learning".

### 6.4.1 Preferred Methods for Leadership Development (RQ1)

Overall, participants rated challenging job assignments as their most preferred method of development (5.78), followed by self-directed structured developmental training (5.56), networking (5.29) and tertiary education (5.06). Officers considered executive coaching (3.76) and assessment centres (3.22) as their least preferred methods. Participants' stronger preference for challenging job assignments is not surprising in the light of the literature, which emphasises the applied or craft-based nature of police work (Rowe, Turner, & Pearson, 2016; Willis & Mastrofski, 2017). Officers' preference for on-the-job related developmental

experiences to advance their leadership aligns with scholarly studies espousing the effectiveness of this approach in policing (Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009; Wedlick, 2012). Participants' penchant for work-based learning experiences to facilitate their development also aligns with research in non-police environments, including early studies by McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison (1988) and, more recently, Blackman et al. (2016) who found the majority of learning is acquired through on-the-job experiences.

The next most preferred method involved "self-directed and structured development" that reflects a mature cohort of learners facilitated by less exposure to compulsory formal training experienced at lower ranks. Apart from compliance training (weapons and self-defence), QPS commissioned officers directed their own training and developmental requirements. Therefore, the stronger preference shown by participants for self-directed learning likely reflects how officers have grown accustomed to and increasingly adept at chartering their own professional developmental needs.

Participants rated networking as the third highest preferred developmental approach. Networking is a legitimate way to enhance leadership skills (Day, 2001; McCallum & O'Connell, 2009). The ability to network has been isolated as an important attribute of police leaders (Dobby et al., 2004; Österlind & Haake, 2010). Schafer (2010a) found networking to be helpful as a strategy for developing leadership capability in senior police officers.

Tertiary based education and training courses also rated favourably, with participants ranking this method fourth highest overall. The emphasis placed on tertiary qualifications was mirrored in officers' demographic profile revealing approximately 75% of officers held at least an undergraduate degree or higher qualification. This finding is similar to research undertaken by Schafer (2010a) in the US who found two-thirds of senior police officers

attending the much-vaunted Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) course, possessed at least a bachelor's degree. Roberts, Herrington, Jones, White, and Day (2016) also emphasised the need for present and future leaders to possess adequate educational qualifications to better equip them to deal with enormous challenges presented by an increasingly complex policing landscape. The finding that officers preferred job assignments (on-the-job), networking (relationships) and self-directed structured developmental training (formal learning) broadly supports the theoretical 70:20:10 learning model (McCall et al., 1988), which found that 90% of all learning is acquired informally (i.e. through work-based assignments and via relationships) and the remaining 10% is obtained through formal learning (i.e. structured learning activities).

**Table 6.1 Preferred Leader Development Methods (n = 178)**

| Type of method | | Overall | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| (i) | Mentoring | 165 | 4.48 | 1.84 |
| (ii) | Executive coaching | 135 | 3.76 | 1.67 |
| (iii) | Formal feedback | 154 | 4.08 | 1.66 |
| (iv) | Action learning | 164 | 4.91 | 1.74 |
| (v) | Challenging job assignments | 176 | 5.78 | 1.44 |
| (vi) | Networking | 178 | 5.29 | 1.46 |
| (vii) | QPS structured development training | 176 | 4.63 | 1.73 |
| (viii) | Self-directed structured development training | 177 | 5.56 | 1.45 |
| (ix) | Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 172 | 5.06 | 1.82 |
| (x) | Assessment centres | 161 | 3.22 | 1.94 |

A principal axis factor analysis using varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structure on the ten items relating to leadership development methods. Jacobs, Irvine, and Walker (2018, p. 99) define factor analysis as a "statistical procedure for

analysing the inter-correlations amongst the numerous measures that reduces the set to a smaller number of underlying factors". Item loadings with less than 0.35% were omitted from further analysis. As a general rule, 0.32% has been cited as the lowest loading for any one item (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). After rotation, two factors were extracted. The first factor accounted for 29.63% of the variance, with the second factor accounting for 18.98% of the variance. A total of 48.61% of the variance was explained by the two factors. Table 6.2 (below) displays the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors.

**Table 6.2 Factor Loadings for Preferred Development Methods (N = 112)**

| Item | Factor Loading | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | Communalities |
| (i)Mentoring | .68 | | .54 |
| (ii)Executive coaching | .53 | .50 | .53 |
| (iii)Formal feedback | .65 | | .51 |
| (iv)Action learning | .63 | | .47 |
| (v)Challenging job assignments | .60 | | .40 |
| (vi)Networking | .68 | | .46 |
| (vii)QPS structured development training | .60 | | .45 |
| (viii)Self-directed structured development training | | .68 | .54 |
| (ix)Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | | .81 | .66 |
| (x)Assessment Centres | .37 | .41 | .30 |
| Eigenvalues | 2.96 | 1.90 | |
| % of Variance | 29.63 | 18.98 | |

Note: Loadings <.35 are omitted.

Executive coaching and assessment centres failed to load clearly on Factor 1 or 2 and were removed prior to re-running the analysis. After the analysis was re-run with eight items, two factors were extracted, accounting for a total of 51.02% of the variance, resulting in an improvement. The first factor accounted for 32.59% of the variance, with the second factor accounting for 18.43% of the variance (see Table 6.3 below).

**Table 6.3 Factor Loadings for Preferred Development Methods (N = 130)**

| Item | Factor Loading | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | Communalities |
| (i) Mentoring | .63 | | .47 |
| (iii) Formal feedback | .62 | | .44 |
| (iv) Action learning | .63 | | .46 |
| (v) Challenging job assignments | .63 | | .46 |
| (vi) Networking | .71 | | .50 |
| (vii) QPS structured development training | .63 | | .49 |
| (viii) Self-directed structured development training | | .76 | .68 |
| (ix) Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | | .74 | .58 |
| Eigenvalues | 2.61 | 1.47 | |
| % of Variance | 32.59 | 18.43 | |

Note: Loadings < .35 are omitted.

Factors in Table 6.3 (above) are not discernible in practical terms with respect to participants favouring one factor (or collection of methods) over the other. However, these factors are distinguishable, based on the extent to which participants exercise control over their learning. For instance, Factor 1 (i.e. mentoring, formal feedback, action learning, challenging job assignments, networking and QPS structured development training) can be broadly categorised as methods that are controlled, external to the learner, or centrally-administered

by the host organisation. Learners would typically exercise little or no autonomy over the mode, duration or quality of interventions listed in Factor 1. However, in contrast, self-directed structured training and tertiary based education, Factor 2, typically reflects "learner controlled" or "learner-centric" development where officers enjoy more flexibility and autonomy over their learning. Thus, locus of control separates the two factors.

Viewed from an alternative lens, factors which emerged from the analysis (see Table 6.3 above), can also be described as "work-centred training" (Factor 1) and "education focused" (Factor 2). Except for "QPS structure development training", all items that loaded on to Factor 1 can be categorised as work-based or job centred training where the learner exercises little control over learning outcomes. In contrast, tertiary based courses and self-directed learning (Factor 2) are methods more likely undertaken away from work, be self-directed and reflect a broader "educational focus".

### 6.4.2 Variations in Rank and Preferred Development Methods

Table 6.4 provides a breakdown of responses by rank for each of the preferred leader development methods, which revealed similar rankings for inspector and superintendent, apart from action learning. Mean comparisons (independent groups t-tests) revealed a significant difference between inspectors and superintendents concerning the extent to which they perceived action learning as beneficial to their development. Superintendents, in contrast to inspectors, reported action learning as more helpful for their development ($t(162) = -2.65$, $p=.009$). According to Baron (2016, p. 296), action learning involves "working on real problems, gaining new insights in a supportive and confrontational environment of one's peer". Differing perceptions between ranks concerning the utility of action learning is likely linked to varying levels of exposure each group had to this method. Due to their higher rank, superintendents are more likely than their lower ranked counterparts to be charged with

implementing work-orientated “pet projects” championed by senior executives. Due to this exposure, superintendents may be more accustomed to this method, reinforced through positive feedback derived their bosses. By their rank, superintendents also receive more exposure to AIPM leadership developmental programs that emphasise work-based learning approaches reflected in the 70:20:10 learning approach. Therefore, compared to inspectors, greater exposure to action learning, enjoyed by superintendents, may likely lead to stronger preferences for this work-based learning intervention.

No empirical research exists which links action learning with enhanced police leadership effectiveness. The vexed issue of accurately measuring police leadership effectiveness was noted by Campbell and Kodz (2011), arguing that complex performance standards in policing are impacted by a myriad of factors, making it problematic to link leadership with tangible outcomes. Nevertheless, scholars have noted the potential of action learning in developing police leaders (see Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013).

**Table 6.4 Rank and Preferred Developmental Methods (Means)**

| Type of method | Inspectors | | | | Superintendents | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *t* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *t* |
| (i) Mentoring | 135 | 4.39 | 1.81 | -1.327 | 30 | 4.90 | 1.92 | -1.324 |
| (ii) Executive coaching | 111 | 3.65 | 1.64 | -1.726 | 24 | 4.29 | 1.73 | -1.665 |
| (iii) Formal feedback | 125 | 4.04 | 1.66 | -.688 | 29 | 4.28 | 1.69 | -6.80 |
| (iv) Action learning | 133 | 4.74 | 1.70 | -2.645 | 31 | 5.65 | 1.74 | -2.604 |
| (v) Challenging job assignments | 143 | 5.69 | 1.43 | -1.661 | 33 | 6.15 | 1.46 | -1.636 |
| (vi) Networking | 145 | 5.30 | 1.38 | .191 | 33 | 5.24 | 1.80 | .162 |
| (vii) QPS structured development training | 144 | 4.68 | 1.68 | .902 | 32 | 4.38 | 1.98 | .811 |
| (viii) Self-directed structured development training | 143 | 5.50 | 1.51 | -1.187 | 34 | 5.82 | 1.11 | -1.428 |
| (ix) Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 138 | 4.96 | 1.81 | -1.462 | 34 | 5.47 | 1.80 | -1.471 |
| (x) Assessment centres | 129 | 3.19 | 1.89 | -.493 | 32 | 3.38 | 2.12 | -.460 |

Note: Green-shaded area (above) represents a significant difference.

A MANOVA was performed with "rank" as the independent variable and the ten developmental methods (Q43) as the dependent variables, which revealed significant differences between inspectors and superintendents. Once again, there was a significant difference in the perceived value of action learning ($F$ (1, 110) = 4.33, $p$ = .040). Specifically, superintendents perceived action learning as being more helpful than inspectors (see Table 6.5 below) which mirrors results derived from previously discussed means comparisons (independent groups t-tests) for the learning methods (see Table 6.4 above). As outlined earlier (see Section 6.4.2) two plausible reasons for variations between ranks concerning the perceived utility of action learning includes varying levels of learner maturity and differing levels of exposure each rank had to each method. In addition, there was a significant difference in terms of perceived utility of tertiary based educational courses and programs ($F$(1,110) = 11.14, $p$ = .001). In particular, superintendents considered tertiary based educational courses and programs as being more beneficial in developing their

leadership (see Table 6.5 below). Differences in perceived utility of tertiary education may be linked to the nature of roles performed by each rank. For instance, superintendents perform relieving duties as assistant commissioners—a role that demands a higher-level of cognitive skills. Superintendents may perceive tertiary education as a vehicle more suited to developing their higher order thinking capabilities. Benefits derived from police undertaking education is still subject to debate within scholarly circles, however, college educated students were found to have improved cognitive skills, reflective reasoning and good communication skills (Rydberg & Terrill, 2010).

Possessing tertiary qualifications is not a prerequisite to promotion within the QPS, however, a large proportion of the cohort were degree qualified. Therefore, it is arguable that acquiring relevant tertiary qualifications may enhance an officer's merit for promotion. Statistically, superintendents are better placed for promotion than their lower ranked counterparts and, therefore, likely to be more ambitious and driven to succeed. Some researchers contend highly talented officers should be tertiary qualified to assist them progress to the upper echelons of policing (see Lee & Punch, 2004). Putting aside previous suggestions, superintendents may merely perceive education as a means of acquiring more external knowledge to help them make sense of their increasingly complex and challenging world.

**Table 6.5 Rank and Preferred Development Methods (MANOVA)**

| Type of method | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **(i)** Mentoring | 93 | 4.12 | 1.79 | 19 | 4.95 | 1.68 |
| **(ii)** Executive coaching | 93 | 3.48 | 1.55 | 19 | 4.16 | 1.57 |
| **(iii)** Formal feedback | 93 | 3.91 | 1.61 | 19 | 4.42 | 1.64 |
| **(iv)** Action learning | 93 | 4.61 | 1.72 | 19 | 5.53 | 1.87 |
| **(v)** Challenging job assignments | 93 | 5.55 | 1.45 | 19 | 6.11 | 1.49 |
| **(vi)** Networking | 93 | 5.08 | 1.45 | 19 | 5.53 | 1.65 |
| **(vii)** QPS structured development training | 93 | 4.66 | 1.73 | 19 | 5.00 | 1.67 |
| **(viii)** Self-directed structured development training | 93 | 5.38 | 1.61 | 19 | 5.89 | 0.74 |
| **(ix)** Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 93 | 4.74 | 1.78 | 19 | 6.16 | 1.07 |
| **(x)** Assessment centres | 93 | 3.08 | 1.85 | 19 | 3.37 | 2.06 |

Note: Green-shaded areas (above) represent a significant difference.

### 6.4.3 Length of Service and Preferred Development Methods

A MANOVA was performed with service length as the independent variable and the ten items on learning methods (Q43) as dependent variables. Note: “Shorter Service” = 15-29 years’ service; “Longer Service” = 30 years or more service. Results showed a significant difference in the perceived helpfulness of executive coaching ($F(1, 110) = 4.78$, $p = .031$). Specifically, participants with fewer years in the service perceived executive coaching to be more helpful compared to officers with more service experience, (see Table 6.6 below).

**Table 6.6 Service Length and Preferred Development Methods (Q43)**

| Type of method | | Shorter service | | | Longer service | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| (i) | Mentoring | 33 | 4.76 | 1.44 | 79 | 4.05 | 1.89 |
| (ii) | Executive coaching | 33 | 4.09 | 1.44 | 79 | 3.39 | 1.58 |
| (iii) | Formal feedback | 33 | 4.33 | 1.53 | 79 | 3.86 | 1.64 |
| (iv) | Action learning | 33 | 4.85 | 1.73 | 79 | 4.73 | 1.80 |
| (v) | Challenging job assignments | 33 | 5.82 | 1.51 | 79 | 5.57 | 1.45 |
| (vi) | Networking | 33 | 5.42 | 1.46 | 79 | 5.04 | 1.50 |
| (vii) | QPS structured development training | 33 | 5.03 | 1.65 | 79 | 4.58 | 1.74 |
| (viii) | Self-directed structured development training | 33 | 5.67 | 1.29 | 79 | 5.38 | 1.60 |
| (ix) | Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 33 | 4.97 | 1.78 | 79 | 4.99 | 1.76 |
| (x) | Assessment centres | 33 | 3.76 | 1.92 | 79 | 2.86 | 1.82 |

Note: Green-shaded areas (above) represent a significant difference.

The MANOVA undertaken with length of service as the independent variable and the ten items on learning methods (Q43) as the dependent variables also indicated a significant difference in the perceived utility of assessment centres ($F(1,110) = 5.48$, $p = .021$). Officers with fewer years in service perceived assessment centres to be more beneficial compared to officers with more years of service. Less experienced officers were conceivably younger than their more experienced colleagues. "Seasoned" older officers may have "career plateaued" and be less receptive to development compared to younger, less experienced officers. Research undertaken by Burke and Mikkelsen (2006) in the US found police officers who had plateaued in their careers produced lower work output and demonstrated high levels of cynicism. For older, more experienced officers, feedback derived from executive coaching and assessment centres may challenge entrenched notions concerning their leadership capabilities. In contrast, younger, less experienced counterparts were likely to be less shackled by preconceived ideas concerning their leadership abilities, and therefore, more receptive to feedback.

### 6.4.4 Primary Role and Preferred Development Methods

A MANOVA was performed with primary role as the independent variable and the ten items on learning methods (Q43) as dependent variables (see Table 6.7 below).

**Table 6.7 Perceived Helpfulness of Different Methods for Leadership Development (Q43)**

| Type of method | | Operational | | | Others | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **(i)** | Mentoring | 74 | 4.20 | 1.84 | 38 | 4.37 | 1.73 |
| **(ii)** | Executive coaching | 74 | 3.51 | 1.62 | 38 | 3.76 | 1.48 |
| **(iii)** | Formal feedback | 74 | 3.93 | 1.65 | 38 | 4.13 | 1.56 |
| **(iv)** | Action learning | 74 | 4.68 | 1.83 | 38 | 4.95 | 1.66 |
| **(v)** | Challenging job assignments | 74 | 5.72 | 1.45 | 38 | 5.50 | 1.50 |
| **(vi)** | Networking | 74 | 5.15 | 1.47 | 38 | 5.16 | 1.55 |
| **(vii)** | QPS structured development training | 74 | 4.46 | 1.87 | 38 | 5.21 | 1.23 |
| **(viii)** | Self-directed structured development training | 74 | 5.41 | 1.61 | 38 | 5.58 | 1.31 |
| **(ix)** | Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 74 | 4.73 | 1.91 | 38 | 5.47 | 1.31 |
| **(x)** | Assessment centres | 74 | 2.99 | 1.85 | 38 | 3.39 | 1.94 |

Note: Green-shaded areas (above) represent a significant difference.

Results showed a significant difference between those with an operational role and those with other roles in their perceived helpfulness of QPS structured development training ($F(1, 110) = 4.98$, $p = .028$) and tertiary based educational courses and/or programs ($F(1,110) = 4.63$, $p = .034$). Specifically, those with "other roles" perceived QPS structured development training and tertiary based educational courses and/or programs to be more helpful than those with an operational role (see Table 6.7 above). Officers in operational roles, or "generalists", perform a wide range of duties requiring a broad knowledge and skill set. In contrast, participants undertaking "other roles", i.e. "specialists", require "expert" knowledge and skills in a much narrower field. Police work requires officers to perform a myriad of specialist roles including forensics, criminal investigations and information

technology, necessitating individuals receive highly specialised training (Adderley & Musgrove, 2001). Therefore, participants from “other roles” may favour tailored structured training and tertiary based courses as better addressing their unique or specialist developmental needs.

The previous analysis presented findings which informed the first research question (RQ1) concerning commissioned officers’ preferred leadership developmental methods. The following analysis will detail findings relating to research the second research question (RQ2), concerning factors likely to constrain or facilitate the leadership development of commissioned officers.

### 6.4.5 Factors Which Enhance and Hinder Leadership Development (RQ2)

Research question 2 involved identifying factors, other than development methods, likely to constrain or facilitate the leadership development of commissioned officers (RQ2). The survey questionnaire gauged participants’ perceptions on various items including: Q45 (see Table 6.8) and Q46 (see able 6.9) and Q47, 48, 50, 51 and 52 (see Table 6.10).

Firstly, officers’ perceptions were derived concerning the relative strengths and weaknesses of developing their leadership, comprising four areas of organisational support (see question 45; Table 6.8 below). Participants were asked to rate each area on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = significant weakness; 4 = neutral; 7 = significant strength). Participants’ perceptions of four areas of organisational support were recorded, which revealed no significant differences between inspectors and superintendents in mean scores.

**Table 6.8 Perceived Strengths/Weaknesses of Leadership Development: Organisational Support Areas (Q45)**

| Source | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **(i)** My immediate supervisor | 182 | 4.68 | 1.85 | 148 | 4.64 | 1.84 | 34 | 4.82 | 1.93 |
| **(ii)** My over-viewing officer (in terms of my "Performance Development Agreement"—PDA) | 181 | 4.38 | 1.91 | 148 | 4.41 | 1.89 | 33 | 4.24 | 2.00 |
| **(iii)** The Queensland Police Commissioned Officers Union of Employees (QPCOUE) | 175 | 4.36 | 1.27 | 144 | 4.40 | 1.30 | 31 | 4.19 | 1.14 |
| **(iv)** The "Leadership Development Unit" (LDU) (Queensland Police Academy) | 177 | 3.89 | 1.50 | 143 | 3.88 | 1.44 | 34 | 3.94 | 1.77 |

Participants' immediate supervisors (4.68) recorded the highest overall mean score, with over-viewing officers rated second (4.38), following the QPCOUE (4.36). Note: The over-viewing officer is, by virtue of their performance development agreement (PDA), superior to the participant by at least two (higher) ranks. Comparatively, the top three ranked support areas were not heavily weighted, however, they were still perceived by participants as having some utility concerning support for their development. Participants' slightly higher ratings allocated to superiors, i.e. the immediate supervisor and over-viewing officer, appears consistent with findings in the extant police literature. For instance, research undertaken by Schafer (2009, p. 246) in the US who found officers' leadership was enhanced after forming relationships with superiors who provided on-the-job mentoring accompanied by feedback and support.

While superiors and the QPCOUE were considered as having some effectiveness, a similar conclusion was cannot be drawn for the Leadership Development Unit (LDU), which was rated by officers as somewhat of a weakness (3.89). The LDU focuses on providing structured qualifying developmental programs targeting senior sergeants progressing to inspector rank (Maher, 2012). Therefore, it is likely commissioned officers perceived the

LDU as having limited utility owing to the unit's focus on developing lower ranked officers. Notably, support areas received relatively low ratings, with all four receiving mean scores of less than 5 out of a possible 7, which likely indicates officers see job related areas as more powerful. Alternatively, participants may view other support areas, not included in this survey, such as the AIPM, as having a more positive influence on their development.

Officers' perceptions concerning leadership development were gauged involving six aspects of the current role, i.e. a strength or weakness (Q46) (see Table 6.9 below) on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = significant weakness; 4 = neutral; 7 = significant strength). An analysis of mean scores subsequently revealed no significant differences between inspectors and superintendents.

**Table 6.9 Perceived Strengths/Weaknesses of Leadership Development: Aspects of Current Role (Q46)**

| Source | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **(i)** Amount of authority (i.e. power to delegate tasks and responsibilities) | 181 | 5.54 | 1.33 | 147 | 5.51 | 1.36 | 34 | 5.68 | 1.20 |
| **(ii)** Amount of autonomy (i.e. degree of flexibility, freedom or discretion) | 183 | 5.51 | 1.50 | 149 | 5.49 | 1.47 | 34 | 5.62 | 1.67 |
| **(iii)** Responsibilities of the role | 183 | 5.81 | 1.23 | 149 | 5.77 | 1.22 | 34 | 6.00 | 1.28 |
| **(iv)** Time available (to undertake development) | 183 | 4.08 | 1.74 | 149 | 4.18 | 1.74 | 34 | 3.62 | 1.67 |
| **(v)** Number of staff under my control | 176 | 5.19 | 1.56 | 142 | 5.18 | 1.60 | 34 | 5.21 | 1.43 |
| **(vi)** Resources (including finances) at my disposal | 181 | 4.60 | 1.78 | 147 | 4.56 | 1.72 | 34 | 4.79 | 2.04 |

In contrast to the relatively low mean ratings listed in Table 6.9 (above) for "resources at my disposal" (4.60) and "time available to undertake development" (4.08), four of the six job related aspects scored healthy ratings of over 5 out of a possible 7. Factors rated highly included: "responsibilities of the role" (5.81); "amount of authority" (5.54); "amount of

autonomy" (5.51); and "number of staff" (5.19). The higher utility that all participants placed on job related factors in facilitating their advancement as leaders, aligned with research findings which emphasise the importance of police leaders learning leadership through "on-the-job experiences" (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2009; Wedlick, 2012). As noted above, participants' rating of "time available to undertake development" (4.08) attracted the lowest mean rating, which reflected officers feeling indifferent to its relative strength/weakness. There is some evidence to support the contention that expansion of police leadership capabilities can be constrained by officers having insufficient time to devote to their development (Schafer, 2009).

As previously highlighted, the researcher was constrained concerning the number of questions for inclusion in the survey. Therefore, the following discussion will analyse results from a handful of questions pertaining to "miscellaneous factors" (likely to facilitate or constrain the development of leaders: Q 47, 48, 50, 51 and 52), linked to the second research question. On a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 3 = neither agree not disagree and 5 = strongly agree), participants' perceptions were sought on miscellaneous factors related to the development as leaders, reflected in mean ratings (see Table 6.10 below).

**Table 6.10 Strengths/Weaknesses of Leadership Development: Miscellaneous Factors (Q47, 48, 50, 51 & 52)**

| Item | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| Q47. My own personal limitations constrain or impede my development as a leader | 183 | 2.67 | 0.97 | 149 | 2.63 | 0.98 | 34 | 2.82 | 0.94 |
| Q48. I am regularly "overlooked" or "passed-over" for leadership development opportunities | 183 | 2.97 | 1.04 | 149 | 3.05 | 1.03 | 34 | 2.65 | 1.04 |
| Q50. The "Service" places more emphasis on developing managers as opposed to developing leaders | 183 | 3.36 | 0.99 | 149 | 3.37 | 0.97 | 34 | 3.29 | 1.12 |
| Q51. Within departmental time, the "Service" provides me with sufficient opportunities to develop my leadership | 183 | 2.51 | 1.00 | 149 | 2.46 | 1.00 | 34 | 2.74 | 0.96 |
| Q52. Developing my leadership is not one of my priorities | 183 | 1.97 | 0.85 | 149 | 2.03 | 0.89 | 34 | 1.71 | 0.58 |

Note: Green-shaded areas (above) represent a significant difference.

Table 6.10 (above) shows overall, the highest recorded mean score of 3.36 was for Q50 (The "Service" places more emphasis on developing managers as opposed to developing leaders). This finding echoes scholarly research that reveals police organisations rely heavily on a traditional management culture (Walsh, 2001) with a penchant for emphasising management at the expense of leadership (Schafer, 2009, 2010b).

Means comparisons (independent groups t-tests) revealed a significant difference between inspectors and superintendents on Q48 (I am regularly "overlooked" or "passed-over" for leadership development opportunities). Specifically, inspectors were more likely than superintendents to believe they were "snubbed" for leadership development opportunities: $t(181) = 2.04$, $p = .043$. Total inspector numbers dwarf superintendent positions by a ratio of 5:1 which means transitioning from inspector to superintendent rank is very competitive. Correspondingly, a larger number of inspectors would need to compete for scarce leadership development opportunities. Conversely, superintendents enjoy greater promotional and developmental opportunities compared to inspectors. Consequently, compared to

superintendents, inspectors are more likely to be unsuccessful in securing opportunities to develop in a limited number of developmental opportunities, which mirrors this result.

Means comparisons (independent groups t-tests) revealed a significant difference between inspectors and superintendents in that inspectors were more likely than superintendents to agree that "developing their leadership is not one of their priorities" (Q52): ($t$ (181) = 2.00, $p$=.047). As previously discussed, it is likely the large imbalance between inspector and superintendent numbers breeds intense competition among inspectors vying for promotion. Aside from dampened promotional aspirations, a myriad of plausible reasons could explain why inspectors were not interested in pursuing development with the same vigour as their higher ranked counterparts, including impending retirement, health issues and pursuing other priorities. A classic US study by Whetstone (2001) found the primary reasons why officers elected not to seek promotion to higher rank was family considerations, and in particular, achieving work-life balance**.** Whetstone (2001) also concluded that such officers were likely to be intrinsically motivated by job satisfaction in their current role, and therefore not greatly influenced by external rewards such as promotion.

To further explore evidence to inform RQ2, additional statistical analyses was undertaken involving "strengths and weakness associated with officers' leadership development in the QPS", which comprised four items relating to organisational support areas (Q45) and six items associated with participants' current role (Q46). The ensuing discussion will explore strengths and weaknesses associated with officers' leadership development, with respect to various development methods (Q43).

### 6.4.6 Strengths/Weaknesses and Leadership Developmental Methods

A principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structure on leadership development methods (Q43) focusing on strengths and weaknesses.

The aim of principal axis factor analysis was to find the least number of factors that can explain the common variance in the data. This analysis comprised four items involving organisational support areas (Q45) and six items relating to participants' current roles (Q46). Table 6.11 below displays the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors that culminated in the extraction of three factors. The first factor accounted for 29.12% of the variance; the second factor totalled 16.38% of the variance; with the third factor accounting for 11.16% of the variance.

**Table 6.11 Factor Loadings for Strengths/Weaknesses of Leadership Development (N = 165) (i.e., Q45 Support Entities/Units & Q46 Current role)**

| Item | Factor Loading | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | Communalities |
| **Q45 (ii) [QPS] My immediate supervisor** | | .77 | | .67 |
| **Q45 (iii) [QPS] My over-viewing officer** | | .93 | | .93 |
| **Q45 (iv) [QPS] The Queensland Police Commissioned Officers Union of Employees (QPCOUE)** | | | .58 | .38 |
| **Q45 (v) [QPS] The "Leadership Development Unit" (LDU) (Queensland Police Academy)** | | | .62 | .38 |
| **Q46 (i) [Current Role] Amount of authority (power to delegate tasks and responsibilities)** | .86 | | | .77 |
| **Q46 (ii) [Current Role] Amount of autonomy (degree of flexibility, freedom or discretion)** | .80 | | | .70 |
| **Q46 (iii) [Current Role] Responsibilities of the role** | .82 | | | .70 |
| **Q46 (iv) [Current Role] Time available (to undertake development)** | | | .47 | .30 |
| **Q46 (v) [Current Role] Number of staff under my control** | .64 | | | .43 |
| **Q46 (vi) [Current Role] Resources at my disposal** | .56 | | | .41 |
| **Eigenvalues** | 2.91 | 1.64 | 1.12 | |
| **% of Variance** | 29.12 | 16.38 | 11.16 | |

*Note: Loadings <.35 are omitted.*

The clustering of items associated with “Factor 1” comprised all job-related factors, i.e. amount of authority, amount of autonomy, responsibilities of role, number of staff, and resources at disposal. Two items clustered with “Factor 2” involving relationships with superiors, i.e. immediate supervisor and over-viewing officer. “Factor 3” comprised three items, i.e. QPCOUE, LDU, and time available to undertake development. Within Factor 3, the QPCOUE and the LDU attracted greater weighting and were similar because both units provided support or assistance to participants’ development. However, initial analysis of the third item, i.e. “time taken to undertake development”, failed to align conceptually with the other items. However, when viewed holistically, all three elements appeared to be conceptually connected under the broadly termed factor “training and development orientated”. Therefore, for the purposes of this analysis, the three extracted factors can be categorised as job related, relationships with superiors, and training and development orientated. These broad categories loosely align with the three components of the theoretical 70:20:10 learning model (McCall et al., 1988), i.e. on-the-job development, relationships, and structured training and development.

### 6.4.7 Strengths/Weaknesses: MANOVA Analysis: Group Comparisons

A series of MANOVAs were conducted to assess group differences on key variables of interest. According to Scheiner (2001, p. 102), MANOVAs are similar to ANOVAs except that “rather than comparing the means of groups, we compare their centroids. A centroid is a multi-variate mean the centre of the multidimensional distribution”. The data presented in Table 6.12 (below) is based on MANOVAs with missing data excluded from the list. Only significant results ($p < .05$) are described in Table 6.12. Two questions, Q45 & Q46, each contained a series of items where participants rated the relative strength and weakness of each item concerning their development as leaders.

The resultant MANOVA analysis involved primarily role, rank, length of service and primary role as independent variables with questions Q45 and Q46 as dependent variables. No significant differences were found with analyses involving Q45 regarding rank and length of service as independent variables. However, when a MANOVA was performed with primary role and the four organisational support entities as independent variables on perceived strengths and weaknesses of leadership development (Q45) as the dependent variable, a significant difference emerged as outlined below.

### 6.4.8 Primary Role and Support Entities (Q45)

Results showed a significant difference between those with an operational role and those with "other roles" in their perceptions of the QPCOUE ($F$ (1, 169) = 6.07, $p$ = .015).

**Table 6.12 Perceived Strengths/Weaknesses of QPS Leadership Development with Primary Role (Q45)**

| Source | Operational | | | Other roles | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **(i) My immediate supervisor** | 101 | 4.65 | 1.92 | 70 | 4.76 | 1.69 |
| **(ii) My over-viewing officer (in terms of my "Performance Development Agreement" – PDA)** | 101 | 4.35 | 1.92 | 70 | 4.46 | 1.82 |
| **(iii) The Queensland Police Commissioned Officers Union of Employees (QPCOUE)** | 101 | 4.14 | 1.32 | 70 | 4.61 | 1.12 |
| **(iv) The "Leadership Development Unit" (LDU) (Queensland Police Academy)** | 101 | 3.85 | 1.53 | 70 | 3.94 | 1.47 |

Note: Green-shaded area (above) represents a significant difference.

Specifically, those with "other roles" were more likely to perceive the QPCOUE as a strength of leadership development in the QPS compared to those occupying an operational role (see Table 6.12 above). As discussed previously, participants in "other roles" perform non-operational duties, mainly in corporate, training and other specialist areas, clustered within the greater Brisbane metropolitan area. In contrast, most commissioned officers undertaking operational duties are dispersed outside Brisbane in various regional centres. The QPCOUE

office is located in Brisbane and all union executive members must work close to the capital city to attend regular union meetings. It is likely non-operational participants, owing to the proximity to union office facilities and ready access to QPCOUE executive support, may have positively influenced their perceptions regarding the utility of the QPCOUE to a greater degree compared to their operational colleagues.

### 6.4.9 MANOVA Analysis: Service Length and Job-Related Factors (Q46)

A series of MANOVA analyses was purposely confined to a small number of key variables. Some socio-demographic variables such as gender were not explored, because gender issues did not form the focus of this research and cell sizes were too small. With respect to the age variable, as noted previously, due to the unique characteristics of the population, the vast majority of participants joined the QPS shortly after leaving school and remained with the organisation for the next three decades. Therefore, any analysis of age would simply replicate results derived from the *"length of service"* variable. It is also worth noting that the age variation of the data set was highly compressed.

Separate MANOVA analyses conducted with rank and primarily role as independent variables and the six job-related items associated with Q46, revealed no significant differences. However, a MANOVA was performed with service length as the independent variable and the six items on the perceived strengths and weaknesses of leadership development, with respect to participants' current role (Q46) as dependent variables. Results showed a significant group difference for "number of staff under my control" (Q46v), indicating officers with longer service were more likely to perceive number of staff under their control as a strength of leadership development in their current roles, compared to those who had a shorter service ($F$ (1,174) = 6.62, $p$ = .011) (see Table 6.13 below).

**Table 6.13 Perceived Strengths/Weaknesses of Leadership Development: (MANOVA): Service Length & Six Job Related Factors (Q46).**

| Source | Shorter Service | | | Longer Service | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| (i) Amount of authority (power to delegate tasks and responsibilities) | 55 | 5.45 | 1.32 | 121 | 5.55 | 1.35 |
| (ii) Amount of autonomy (degree of flexibility, freedom or discretion) | 55 | 5.38 | 1.50 | 121 | 5.53 | 1.53 |
| (iii) Responsibilities of the role | 55 | 5.69 | 1.20 | 121 | 5.85 | 1.26 |
| (iv) Time available (to undertake development) | 55 | 4.35 | 1.69 | 121 | 3.89 | 1.71 |
| (v) Number of staff under my control | 55 | 4.75 | 1.90 | 121 | 5.39 | 1.34 |
| (vi) Resources (including finances) at my disposal | 55 | 4.29 | 1.86 | 121 | 4.67 | 1.73 |

Note: green-shaded area (above) represents a significant difference.

Officers, due to their longer service length, are more experienced and more accustomed to having staff under their control. Predicated on greater supervisory experience, it is conceivable these officers would feel more comfortable directing staff than their less experienced counterparts. It is also plausible some officers with greater experience are superintendents and are likely to have more staff under their direction than their lower ranked and less experienced counterparts. Higher ranked and more experienced officers may likely experience more job challenges and derive greater learning outcomes compared to lesser-ranked or less experienced officers who have fewer staff to control. The previous discussion has presented findings from the analysis of data to inform RQ2. We now turn our attention to presenting results from the analysis of data to inform Research Question Three (RQ3) involving the extent to which aspects of feedback, challenge and support affect officers' development as leaders.

## 6.5 Aspects of Support, Challenge and Feedback (RQ3)

Within the context of workplace challenges and leadership, participants' views were sought regarding the extent to which five potential sources of support, i.e. unions, supervisors, peers, organisational support, and family and friends, assisted them in handling job challenges (Q35). Participants' responses were recorded on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = extremely unsupportive; 3 = neutral; 5 = extremely supportive) (see Table 6.14 below).

**Table 6.14 Perceived Supportiveness of Various Sources (Q35)**

| Source | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **Union** | 183 | 3.69 | 0.87 | 149 | 3.70 | 0.87 | 34 | 3.65 | 0.88 |
| **Supervisors** | 183 | 3.66 | 1.09 | 149 | 3.64 | 1.07 | 34 | 3.74 | 1.16 |
| **Peers** | 183 | 3.99 | 0.79 | 149 | 3.93 | 0.79 | 34 | 4.29 | 0.76 |
| **Organisation (QPS)** | 183 | 3.05 | 1.02 | 149 | 3.04 | 0.99 | 34 | 3.09 | 1.16 |
| **Family and Friends** | 183 | 4.55 | 0.70 | 149 | 4.50 | 0.73 | 34 | 4.76 | 0.50 |

Note: green-shaded area (above) represents a significant difference.

### 6.5.1 Support

When comparing mean scores, participants overall rated family and friends the highest (4.55) in terms of perceived support in handling challenges associated with their job, followed by their peers (3.99), the police union (3.69), supervisors (3.66) and the QPS (3.05). Family support involves the degree to which participants feel supported by family members to assist them to cope with the challenges presented by their job (Brady & King, 2018). High levels of perceived support reported by participants concerning family and friends is not surprising considering the stressful nature of policing (Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007; Ryan, Kriska, West, & Sacco, 2001). Support from families can shield and reduce occupational stressors experienced by police officers (Janik & Kravitz, 1994; Rothmann & Van Rensburg, 2002; Sekhri, 2015). Support from colleagues has also been identified as a critical factor for

officer well-being and job satisfaction for all ranks (Brady & King, 2018). Participants likely place great reliance upon family and friends to support their high career ambitions and deal with stressors associated with senior leadership roles. In contrast to elevated levels of support from family and friends, participants were ambivalent concerning perceived levels of support from the organisation (3.05). As previously highlighted, policing has been portrayed as a stressful vocation, however, some research supports the contention that organisational factors as opposed to police work itself causes more officer stress (Shane, 2010b). In a US study, organisational variables were found largely to predict job satisfaction in police chiefs (Brady & King, 2018). Therefore, hesitancy shown by participants regarding perceived organisational support could be associated with various organisational factors that compounded officers' ability to deal with job challenges.

Means comparisons and independent groups t-tests, indicated a significant difference between inspectors and superintendents in their perceived support of "peers" together with "family and friends" as shown in Table 6.14 (above). Specifically, results showed superintendents perceived peers ($t(181) = -2.47$, $p = .014$) and family and friends ($t(70.07) = -2.51$, $p = .014$) to be more supportive compared to inspectors.

As emphasised in Chapter 3, the nature of police work is often characterised as physically taxing and dangerous (Lynch, 2018), and rising to more senior ranks within policing requires a great deal of stamina, persistence and resilience (Caless, 2011), which requires adequate social support, including family (Caless, 2011; Cheung & Halpern, 2010). Superintendents, as executive level officers, were a small cohort who had risen to the upper echelons of the organisation. Consequently, superintendents assumed greater responsibilities and authority associated with their higher rank. Therefore, superintendents are more likely to be busier, more stressed, and "time-poor" and endure longer working hours than inspectors. Rainguet

and Dodge (2001) noted the inordinate demands and pressures placed on police executives makes their work highly stressful, resulting in them feeling lonely and increasingly isolated from work colleagues. It is therefore likely superintendents may require greater levels of support from family, friends and peers compared to their lower ranked counterparts. Cheung and Halpern (2010), for instance, in a US study of female executives, stressed the importance of having family support to make it to the top. In contrast to inspectors, the smaller group of superintendents would likely enjoy stronger camaraderie and a sense of solidarity with peers than with their lower ranked colleagues. Arguably, in order to navigate to executive ranks, superintendents may have to endure greater personal and family sacrifices, including frequently changing jobs and relocating family to remote and regional areas, to obtain requisite experience or secure on-going promotion. Rainguet and Dodge (2001) research on US police found one of the primary reasons for resigning from their portfolios involved high job stresses, which negatively affected their health and caused problems with their family. Therefore, to facilitate their lofty career ambitions, the level of support from family, friends and peers would likely be higher for superintendents compared to inspectors.

### 6.5.2 Feedback

The element of feedback captured in Q43 comprised ten development methods associated with enhancing officer's leadership. All ten methods comprise aspects of feedback, however, two methods are arguably more highly geared towards providing leadership feedback, namely, formal feedback (i.e. 360-degree feedback) and assessment centres (see Table 6.15 below). To recap, officers' perceptions were sought concerning the extent to which various development methods best prepared them as leaders, including formal feedback and assessment centres. Participants perceived formal feedback, in the form of 360-degree feedback, as possessing some utility for their development. However, in contrast and as previously highlighted in Section 6.4.1, overall participants perceived assessment centres

(3.22) as their least preferred method of development. It is likely participants' ambivalence towards assessment centres can be linked to potentially stressful experiences associated with this method (see Griffiths & Allen, 1987; Lievens, 2009). In addition, assessment centres have been traditionally used for selection and promotion purposes (Hermelin, Lievens, & Robertson, 2007) and participants may have perceived this method as being useful for attaining promotion as opposed to being applied for developmental reasons. Results are based on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = not at all prepared, 4 = neutral and 7 = very much prepared).

**Table 6.15 Perceived Helpfulness of Feedback (Q43)**

| Type of method | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **Formal feedback** | 154 | 4.08 | 1.66 | 125 | 4.04 | 1.66 | 29 | 4.28 | 1.69 |
| **Assessment centres** | 161 | 3.22 | 1.94 | 129 | 3.19 | 1.89 | 32 | 3.38 | 2.12 |

### 6.5.3 Job Challenge and Control

On a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = no challenge at all; 3 = neutral; 5 = extremely challenging), participants were asked to what extent they perceived their work to be challenging (Q36) (see Table 6.16 below). An overall mean of 3.83 indicated that officers perceived their work as slightly less than "somewhat challenging". Participants' roles as highly ranked officers would be expected to be demanding and challenging. However, all participants enjoyed lengthy policing careers and such experience would likely equip them with the necessary skills to cope with most job demands. In addition, it is likely many officers have performed the same role or similar duties for lengthy periods and would be equipped with requisite knowledge, expertise and confidence to deal with most challenges.

Participants were also asked about the extent to which they felt that they exercised control over their workload and associated challenges. This question also comprised a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = no control at all; 3 = neutral and 5 = very high degree of control) (see Table 6.16 below).

**Table 6.16 Extent of Challenge and Control of Work (Q36, 37)**

| Item | Overall | | | Inspectors | | | Superintendents | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *n* | *M* | *SD* |
| **Q. 36: To what extent do you find your work challenging?** | 183 | 3.83 | 0.76 | 149 | 3.79 | 0.78 | 34 | 3.97 | 0.67 |
| **Q. 37: To what extent do you feel you have control over your work load and its associated challenges?** | 183 | 3.45 | 1.17 | 149 | 3.44 | 1.16 | 34 | 3.50 | 1.21 |

An overall mean of 3.45 indicated participants perceived that they exercised a slight level of control over their workload, but less than a moderate degree. Participants in this study were drawn from senior levels in the organisation who were subjected to significant workloads and constraints. As previously highlighted in Chapter 3, policing has been described as dangerous and unpredictable (Evans & Coman, 1993; Fyfe, 1996; Schaible & Gecas, 2010) and uncontrollable (Crank, 2014; Davey, Obst, & Sheehan, 2001). Therefore, participants' perceptions of marginal levels of control over their workload and job-related challenges, reflected the volatile and largely uncontrollable policing environment in which senior officers operate. Scholarly research has identified the tendency for ineffective police leaders to behave as micromanagers (Kyle & Schafer, 2016; Schafer, 2010b). Therefore, participants who experience repeated exposure to micromanaging superiors may also have lower perceptions regarding the degree of control they have over their work. It is noted that means comparisons, independent groups t-tests, and a MANOVA analysis were conducted for both questions, which indicated no significant difference between inspectors' and superintendents'

time.6.5.4 Relative Contributions of Feedback, Support, Challenge, and Control to "Opportunities to Develop"

A standard regression analysis was conducted to determine the relative contribution of elements of assessment, support, challenge and control on "opportunities to develop". Q43 item 3, Q43 item 10, Q33, Q35 with five individual items, Q36, and Q37 were entered as predictors, with "opportunities to develop" (Q51) as the dependent variable (see Table 6.17 below). able 6.17 Assessment, Support, Challenge and Control on Opportunities to Develop (Q51) Dependent variable: The "Service" provides me with sufficient opportunities to development my leadership

| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | B | Std. Error | β | t | Sig. |
| **(Constant)** | .183 | .696 | | .263 | .793 |
| **Q. 43 (iii): Helpfulness of formal (i.e. 360 degree) feedback** | .065 | .054 | .106 | 1.204 | .231 |
| **Q. 43 (x): Helpfulness of assessment centres** | .001 | .054 | .002 | .016 | .987 |
| **Q. 33: Appropriateness of external assessment centres** | .104 | .075 | .131 | 1.382 | .169 |
| **Q. 35 (i): Support from union** | .082 | .099 | .069 | .830 | .408 |
| **Q. 35 (ii): Support from my supervisors** | **.184** | **.085** | **.200** | **2.171** | **.032** |
| **Q. 35 (iii): Support from peers** | .096 | .110 | .075 | .872 | .385 |
| **Q. 35 (iv): Organisational support** | .050 | .103 | .050 | .485 | .628 |
| **Q. 35 (v): Support from family and friends** | -.034 | .113 | -.024 | -.297 | .767 |
| **Q. 36: Extent to which work is challenging** | -.091 | .100 | -.068 | -.909 | .365 |
| **Q. 37: Control over workload** | **.228** | **.074** | **.246** | **3.092** | **.002** |

Note: green-shaded area (above) represents a significant difference

With the ten items (predictors) in the model, *R* was significantly different from zero ($R = .53$, $R^2 = .28$, adjusted $R^2 = .23$) and ($F$ (10, 137) 5.26, $p < .001$). Support from superiors (Q35) ($B = .18$, $t = 2.17$, $p = .032$) and control over their own workload and its associated challenges (Q37) ($B = .23$, $t = 3.09$, $p = .002$) emerged as the only significant independent predictors of "opportunities to develop" (Q51), however this finding does strongly support the notion that support and control are critical elements in leadership development. Support from superiors

accounted for 2.5% of unique variance in “opportunities to develop”, with control over their own workload and its associated challenges accounting for 5.1% of unique variance in “opportunities to develop”. Supportive police superiors enhance the likelihood of officers accessing leader developmental opportunities, while unsupportive superiors can stymie attempts by officers to access such opportunities (Jones, 2018). Therefore, participants’ perceptions of having supportive superiors equated with greater chances of accessing developmental opportunities.

Likewise, officers perceived that if some degree of control was exercised over job workload and role related challenges, they were more likely to access opportunities to develop. As previously highlighted in Chapter 3, time constraints and workload pressures associated with policing have been found to constrain officers from developing their leadership (Campbell, Stewart, & Kodz, 2011; Herrington, 2014). Therefore, having manageable workloads and exercising some control over job challenges likely meant officers were “freed-up”, allowing them to readily pursue developmental opportunities.

The survey questionnaire gauged participants’ perceptions on several items aimed at informing RQ3, namely Q35 (see Table 6.14) and Q36 and Q37 (see Table 6.16). Firstly, bivariate correlation analyses were conducted examining how assessment, support, challenge and control are associated with “opportunities to develop” (Q51). A reliability analysis was first conducted to see whether the five areas of support (Q35) could be averaged to form a single index of support. With a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.65, the five areas of support were kept as separate measures/variables of support. Results of the correlation analyses showed officers who had a greater perception that the “police service” provides sufficient opportunities to develop leadership, was significantly associated with greater perceived support from the union (0.22), supervisors (0.36), peers (0.25) and the QPS (0.35). Officers

who gained greater access to developmental opportunities would most likely perceive these areas as supportive of their development as leaders. In addition, these participants also perceived they had greater control over their workload and associated challenges (0.38). Both outcomes are broadly consistent with results from previous regression analyses concerning providing opportunities to leadership development (Q51) (see Table 6.17).

Two methods commonly associated with more formalised feedback were also found to be significantly associated with access to developmental opportunities (Q51), namely, assessments centres (Q33 and Q34x) and formal feedback (Q34iii). Specifically, participants who thought that the "police service" provided sufficient opportunities to develop leadership, was significantly associated with what they perceived as the helpfulness of assessment centres (0.24). In addition, these participants agreed that the current external assessment centre process for commissioned officers was appropriate (0.24). These participants also perceived formal feedback (0.25), i.e. 360-degree feedback, to be more helpful.

Results above involving assessment centres could be linked to the previous MANOVA analysis conducted on years of service and Q43 (ten methods) (see RQ1). To briefly recap, this analysis revealed officers with fewer years of service perceived assessment centres to be more beneficial compared to officers who possessed more years of service (see developmental opportunities). As highlighted earlier in Section 6.4.3, by comparing results, it is likely officers who gain more access to developmental opportunities are also likely to be less experienced (i.e. younger) and may be more receptive to formal feedback derived from assessment centres and 360-degree feedback compared to their more experienced counterparts.

## 6.6 Limitations

As noted earlier in Section 6.2, and also in Chapter 4, this study made use of the QPCOUE's regular industrial Enterprise Bargaining (EB) surveying process that involved inherent limitations. For instance, the survey instrument already contained many pre-determined questions which concentrated on broad EB issues. Consequently, the researcher was restricted to including 15 questions additional questions that pertained to this study. The addition of further questions risked over-extending the survey's length that may have prompted concerns from the QPCOUE executive. However, in some instances, the researcher was able to draw upon existing questions, which supplemented the analysis of data drawn derived from the 15 questions, added by the researcher. Response rate was high, suggesting that the results do validly reflect the population being examined. As noted previously, this healthy response rate can be credited to participants of the target population being primed by email correspondence (dispatched by the QPCOUE president), forewarning them to the pending EB negotiations, endorsing the study and encouraging them to participate. However, like other studies in this thesis, this method provided insights into participants' *perceptions* of their lived experiences only, not necessarily the objective reality of what they perceived.

## 6.7 Summary and Conclusions

This chapter discussed survey results from a questionnaire distributed to QPCOUE commissioned officers yielding a healthy response rate of 61%. The analysis revealed inspectors comprised four out of every five participants, with executive level officers (i.e. superintendents and chief superintendents) comprising the remaining 20%. Highly ranked police officer participants were characterised as overwhelmingly male, highly educated, and senior in service and policing experience, with most occupying operational roles. The

subsequent discussion informed the three research questions based on SPSS data analysis comprising descriptive statistics, t-tests, bivariate correlations and MANOVAs.

### 6.7.1 Research Question One (RQ1)

The first research question aimed to identify what developmental methods best facilitated the leadership of senior police officers. An analysis of ten leader development methods (Q43) revealed a strong preference for challenging job assignments followed by self-directed structured training and networking. As noted in Section 6.4.1, this result broadly aligns with the 70:20:10 learning model (McCall et al., 1988) where 70% of leadership learning is acquired through on-the-job experiences (i.e. challenging job assignments), 20% comprises relationships (i.e. superiors and work colleagues) and the remaining 10% is achieved through formal (structured) training and development. Participants preference for challenging job experiences was aligned with this research, emphasising the importance of police leaders learning leadership primarily through work-based experiences or developing leadership "on-the job" (Filstad, Karp, & Glomseth, 2018; Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009; Wedlick, 2012). Superintendents' stronger preference for action learning compared with inspectors' preferences, was attributed to greater learner maturity and more exposure to this method.

As highlighted in Section 6.4.1, two factors emerged from the analysis involving leader development methods (Q43). The first factor containing various methods broadly reflected a "central or organisationally controlled" approach while the second factor mirrored a "learner controlled" approach. MANOVA analyses revealed superintendents perceived action learning and tertiary based courses/programs to be significantly more helpful compared with their lower ranked colleagues. Participants with fewer years of service perceived executive coaching and assessment centres as having significantly more utility compared with

colleagues with a greater length of service. Finally, officers who identified their primary role as "operational" considered structured training and tertiary courses as preferred methods to develop as a leader, compared with participants occupying other support roles.

### 6.7.2 Research Question Two (RQ2)

Research question two aimed to identify what factors (other than learning methods) constrain or facilitate senior officers in developing as leaders. As discussed in Section 6.4.5 supervisors (Q45) were perceived has having greater utility in terms of developing participants as leaders. However, the LDU was considered a slight constraint—likely attributable to the unit's focus on lower ranked officers. Job related variables (Q46) were perceived as strengthening officer leadership. However, officers showed ambivalence to "time available to undertake development", likely reflecting participants' demanding jobs, leaving them time deficient for development needs (Schafer, 2009). Overall, participants rated variables associated with their current job (Q46) as having greater utility than persons and/or support units linked to their development as leaders (Q45). In summary, officers' preference for work-based experiences as a means of promoting their leadership is consistent with scholarly research in policing (Filstad et al., 2018; Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009; Wedlick, 2012) and aligns with findings from RQ1that on-the-job experiences are perceived as having greater utility in terms of enhancing leadership capability.

As noted in Section 6.4.5 a MANOVA analysis of other factors linked to the leader development (Q47, 48, 50, 51, 52) revealed inspectors were more likely than superintendents of being routinely "passed over" for leadership development opportunities and more inclined to see advancing their leadership wasn't one of their priorities. It was possible that disproportionate numbers of inspectors vying for limited superintendent positions meant

fierce competition for scarce superintendent vacancies culminated in meagre developmental opportunities. It was also likely that a greater proportion of inspectors were likely to have a "career-plateau" and be less ambitious than their more motivated, higher ranked, career orientated counterparts.

Principal axis factor analysis undertaken comprising ten development methods (Q43), four items (Q45) and the six job related variables (Q46) extracted three factors. In summary, these factors were categorised as (i) work-related, (ii) relationship-based, and (iii) training and development orientated, and were aligned with broad constructs found in the literature supportive of police leadership development (Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a).

Role-based MANOVA analysis revealed officers performing non-operational roles perceived the QPCOUE (Q45) as a greater strength (regarding leadership development) compared to participants occupying operational roles. Difference in opinions was likely attributable to most non-operational officers being close to Brisbane and enjoyed greater access to QPCOUE support, compared to operational colleagues, whose positions were geographically dispersed throughout Queensland.

MANOVA analysis involving "length of service" and job-related variables (Q46) revealed that participants with longer service perceived the "number of staff under their control" as having more utility for their development compared with less experienced counterparts. More experienced officers were likely more accustomed to controlling staff. In addition, participants with a more staff under their direction were likely higher ranked and conceivably more competent to handle challenges associated with managing staff.

### 6.7.3 Research Question Three (RQ3)

The third and final research question concerned the extent to which aspects of feedback, challenge and support influenced an officers' leadership development, and were informed by Q35, Q36 and Q37. In terms of support overall, participants predictably perceived family and friends as most supportive, followed by peers, with the organisation considered least supportive. Compared to perceptions held by inspectors, superintendents perceived family and friends, together with peers as providing more support. As discussed in Section 6.5.1 at the executive rank, a superintendent's role is considered more demanding, taxing and stressful, typically requiring more support compared to their lower ranked counterparts. Strong family support has been found to be positively correlated with increased job satisfaction for police chiefs (Brady & King, 2018). Due to their smaller cohort and greater job demands, it is conceivable superintendents relied more heavily upon peers for support than their lower ranked counterparts. Superintendents were also characterised as being more ambitious and career orientated than inspectors and likely more reliant (than inspectors) upon family and friends to support their elevated career aspirations.

Overall, participants perceived their roles as slightly less than somewhat challenging, which may be attributed to skills acquired over lengthy policing careers that better equipped them to deal with job challenges. Officers felt they exercised only a relatively small amount of control over their workload and associated job challenges. This result was most likely linked to the unpredictable and uncontrollable nature of policing coupled with excessive job demands and the penchant for ineffective police leaders to micromanage their subordinates.

Standard regression analysis revealed that "support from supervisors" and "control over workload and associated job challenges" were found to be significant predictors of opportunities to develop (Q51). As highlighted in Section 6.5.4, supportive police superiors

were likely to endorse officers' attempts to access opportunities to expand their leadership (Clapham, 2018). Conversely, unsupportive supervisors are more likely to refuse or frustrate officers' attempts to access available development opportunities. When officers experienced manageable workloads and exercised some degree of control over job challenges, it would conceivably free them up to allocate time to undertake development.

Finally, standard regression analysis revealed only two items—"support from supervisors" and "control over own workload" were significant predictors of "opportunities to develop". This result reflects the importance of supervisor support for officers to facilitate access to developmental opportunities. Additionally, lack of control of one's workload would conceivably impede officers' attempts at accessing opportunities to develop their leadership.

# Chapter 7. Study 3. In-depth Interviews with Commissioned Officers

## 7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the third and final study, involving uncommon and unfettered access to 20 commissioned officers in the QPS. Interviews with this representative sample of senior officers offered the researcher with a rare glimpse in to the arguably cloistered, chaotic and politically charged culture that is policing. Through semi-structured interviews, participants provided in-depth and personal accounts of their rich and diverse lived work experiences as top-ranking leaders.

As described earlier, this research was guided by the two-part leadership development model promoted by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010), involving leadership development as a process comprising leadership context combined with diverse developmental experiences shaped by challenge, feedback and support. In terms of context, officers detailed factors that facilitated and hindered their development as leaders. By recounting their developmental experiences, participants also articulated challenges of the profession, the presence of feedback and the availability of support that influenced their advancement as leaders in the QPS. This study supplemented data obtained from the first study comprising semi-structured interviews with content matter experts, and the second study involving a survey questionnaire with QPS commissioned officers.

The results of this analysis commences by describing the paradox of policing, reflected in officers' accounts of their challenging leadership experiences framed within an increasingly complex and unique policing environment. Next, a description will be presented of how officers tend to learn leadership on the job (as opposed through formal processes). The discussion will then turn to the significant role that "challenge" plays in terms of how officers

learn leadership, together with briefly discussing stressors and pressures that accompany situations that confront police leaders.

Next, the analysis will present three broad learning approaches responsible for promoting the development of police leaders: job assignments/placements, supportive relationships and structured training, together with links to the 70:20:10 learning model. This discussion will highlight how supportive relationships from superiors play a critical role in facilitating officers' leadership, and again feedback, challenge and support emerge as key variables. This builds on the work by Rowe (2016), who examined how leaders' best managed crises in organisations generally and found leadership support was a critical factor in determining success or failure.

The subsequent discussion will articulate the key characteristics of supportive superiors including critical attributes and behaviours. The findings will then offer an analysis of the data on unsupportive superiors and the role of relationships (within and beyond the workplace) in advancing leadership development. The chapter will close with a discussion of key organisational characteristics, including police culture and aspects of human resource management structures and approaches, all discussed within the context of enhancing leadership development.

## 7.2 Methodology Overview

This study deployed in-depth semi-structured interviews with 20 QPS commissioned officers selected using stratified random sampling from the full population of officers. The sampling method and the very high response rate enabled the researcher to have confidence that data is representative of the population. As previously outlined (above), framing of questions were guided by the two-part leadership model espoused by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010). The study informed RQ 2 (i.e. what factors facilitated or constrained how senior

police leaders develop their leadership?) and RQ3 (i.e. the extent to which aspects of challenge, feedback and support influenced leadership development of senior police).

By rank, commissioned officers fall within the top two-and-a-half percent of the organisation and comprise the ranks of inspectors, superintendents and chief superintendents. Consistent with the approach applied in the survey questionnaire (Study 2), the terms "inspector" or "executive level officer" (superintendent and chief superintendent) were applied to broadly distinguish lower echelons and upper echelons within this elite group. Gender-neutral terms were used except where needed to highlight gender issues. Questions that guided the interactions with officers are listed in Appendix 3.

As recommended by Guest, MacQueen, and Namey (2012), data was transcribed and subsequently evaluated using thematic analysis, with coding broadly formed around the research questions. Qualitative data analysis involved a number of general steps, including preparing the data, reducing it to meaningful clusters, combining these into broader categories or "themes" and finally presenting the results in coherent form (Creswell, 2009). The use of *a priori* codes (arising from the research questions and the literature) is considered established practice (Crabtree & Miller, 1992; Crabtree & Miller, 1999), however in this case, these themes were supplemented with others that emerged during initial readings.

## 7.3 Results

### 7.3.1 Factors that Facilitate or Impede Leadership Development: Work Context and the Paradox of Police Work

As expected, the analysis was coloured by the unique context of policing. Participants' accounts of policing painted a picture of an occupation embedded in a contradiction. An external view of policing suggests a risk-adverse enterprise within a highly structured activity constrained increasingly by accountability through tightly written laws and adjudicated by internal mechanisms (i.e. internal investigators) and external authorities (i.e. courts,

ombudsmen, and government) (Beckley & Birkinshaw, 2009). Respondents illustrated their *general* points, not surprisingly, by referring to *particular* occasions. The colourful and frequently gripping experiences described by participants suggest that the 'strong' organisational structure view of police work fails to fully capture the reality of policing. Viewed through the lens of experienced senior leaders, policing emerges as dynamic and uncontrollable exercise governed, in terms of structure, by crimes and natural disasters where the structure of the organisation is reshaped by the structure of the work itself. Officers' accounts highlighted that policing, in principle, is the implementation of the law; in practice, it is an emergency activity conducted in a messy, ill-defined and constantly changing environment. In terms of organisational structure and how that structure is embedded in governance, officers detailed being subjected to heightened levels of accountability and scrutiny from the public, media and external oversight. These lived job experiences were unrelated to the formal structures of law, but internally, officers straddled this world with very different expectations imposed by their superiors and their work. All respondents, either directly or indirectly, articulated this tension between structure and chaos, between scrutiny and the private, real world of the workplace where the officer, often alone, had to face a crisis. Not surprisingly, the second workplace context finding that emerged from officer interviews was that stress is not simply associated with the underlying tensions in police work, but also related to work intensity and the inherent stress of fighting crime and commanding natural disasters.

### 7.3.2 Applied Learning Framework

As a result of the above two overarching characteristics of the work environment, the contradiction in expectations, and the high degree of stress, officers frequently inferred a strongly *applied* learning framework to leadership. This framework presented as comprising three major components responsible for advancing participants' leadership that maps against

existing literature on leadership development, notably the 70:20:10 learning framework (Herrington, 2017; Kajewski & Madsen, 2013; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988) and in a manner that reflected the unique context of policing: on-the-job learning characteristics and relationships (chiefly at work). In addition, a third factor is at play: structured or formal training and development.

Against the backdrop of these three pathways to leadership development and arising as a positive from the stress and conflict of the work is the concept of *challenge*. Challenge was a central premise, which underscored all three components, and officers reported that their ability to advance was curtailed if they did not have sufficient experience facing challenges. Challenge was, to put it in obvious terms, was challenging, but surmounting that challenge provided the backdrop for development. "It's the challenge that gets you going … If you're not stretched as a leader every now and again, you're going to go backwards" (I: 8). The critical importance for developmental experiences to be challenging will be explored later in this discussion.

The nature of qualitative interviews does not allow a clean division of the separate impact of these three components to be compared, but in discussing elements that stimulated development, officers most frequently spoke about work-based assignments, with workplace relationships the next most frequent category, and finally, structured training experiences forming a small minority. The findings are therefore compatible with the 70:20:10 learning framework previously discussed.

### 7.3.3 Leadership: Learning on the Job

Three characteristics of work-based assignments predominated in discussions of leadership development opportunity: promotion, commanding a major crisis, and temporary job placements. While respondents picked out certain key pivotal moments, at the same time they emphasised that lessons were also drip fed into their career by experience. The "every-officer-is-a-leader" philosophy articulated in the literature (Gau, Terrill, & Paoline III, 2013; Kingshott, 2006; Schafer, 2008; Schneider, 2016) generally holds true in this analysis, however some officers depicted sparse opportunities at lower ranks owing to structural impediments within the organisation. For example, an officer described their experience at sergeant level and below as being one of dwarfed opportunities. "The police department teaches us to be really good police; [but] it doesn't teach us to be … leaders until it's too late" (I: 10). As we will note later in this chapter, one element that shaped the officers' development as leaders was supportive relationships within the "Service".

***Promotion**:* Senior police can be broadly characterised as an ambitious and highly motivated cohort, however, advancement comes with strain. Police officers generally attach a high degree of importance to promotion and progressing up the career ladder (Gau et al., 2013), however, officers experienced promotion at times as a change of worlds, not just a change of rank. "One day I was with them; next day I'm one of the opposition" (Is: 3). The occasional antipathy that arises between "management cops" and "street cops" led to some degree to an "*esprit de corp*", demonstrated by a sense of "containment" within a very small elite. Recently promoted officers expressed a newfound sense of freedom and challenge in managing staff and resources. "It certainly was a place for me to grow in my leadership … in charge of my own people ... my own money, my own budget … Because before that, when I was inspector, I wasn't in charge of anything" (Is: 5). Finally, participants described having

to be more inclusive and accommodating of other officers' opinions together with the need to step up and lead.

> So that developed my ability to … accept different perspectives … where I learned to take everyone's views on board, holistically make decisions …; that's changed me a lot *(Is: 3).*

> … it changed largely because I had to be a leader. You couldn't just stand around and let things happen because that was so hopeless. You had to drive them otherwise nothing got done *(In: 13).*

***Commanding major and unusual crises:*** Over half of all participants referred to commanding major incidents or natural disasters as formative or pivotal in their leadership development. The sample interviewed, of course, was a sample of "survivors" of the process, winners who had successfully manoeuvred the challenges they had faced during their career, at least on balance. Challenges simply had to be met. As one inspector put it, "I suppose the sink or swim situations … because you had to do the business" (In: 2).

Major incidents included leading investigations into serious criminal acts such as murder, and quelling civil uprising such as riots and natural disasters. Some of these incidents occurred in physical isolation, remote locations, that amplified the challenge. For instance, an inspector was sudden besieged by an unforeseen natural disaster when relieving at higher rank in a remote location. As commanding officer in charge, the participant was required to juggle dual roles – as major disaster district coordinator and providing "business as usual" police services.

> I was thrown in the deep end which didn't worry me … Within a month of relieving we had massive floods ... it was hard and very difficult at that time, but I learned a lot

> … how to be a leader, a decent leader, and try to get the staff through those times but it put me in a very good stead for getting promoted *(In: 12).*

These "opportunities" that regional/remote postings offered were characterised by isolation and a lack of support, which exacerbated the "natural" isolation inherent in police roles (Hess, Orthmann, & LaDue, 2015; Perez & Barkhurst, 2012). Geographical isolation within isolated communities means resources are spread thinner and police response times are slower compared to urban areas (Wood, Rosay, Postle, & TePas, 2011). One officer admitted feeling emotionally isolated from loved ones when commanding a natural disaster in an isolated rural township. "I was away from my family … I had no family support with me at the time … I'm in a house by myself with no support, trying to deal with the significant disaster. I just felt very isolated" (In: 12).

These feelings of isolation did not necessarily translate into negative developmental outcomes for participants. For instance, officers who performed duties in remote or rural areas found the experience of isolation fortified their leadership. This is consistent with findings by Crank (2014, p. 252) that the nature of police work can foster police solidarity, including "intense in-group dependence". "I think for the first time you realise that you were the meat in the sandwich and not the bread on either end" as one officer (Is: 3) put it neatly. However, in communities, realisation that the community was part of the support matrix also emerges – "when you go to a small community … help is a couple of hours away, you … quickly learn how to … lead people within a community … That was the key" (In: 8).

The "deep end" element of leadership development also included posting into rural locations as part of the learning arc of almost all senior officers (around 80% of the current representative sample). "When you go to a small community … you quickly learn how to … lead. I don't know whether I would have gotten that if I stayed in the big city" (In: 8). As

noted later, there was a close relationship between the challenge and the pay-off in terms of learning: "It was hard and very difficult … but I learned a lot" (I: 12).

***Temporary job placements***: About one third of officers recalled being unexpectedly assigned to new roles or "temporary job placement". These experiences involved officers "stepping up" to perform relieving duties at higher rank or moving laterally into a new role and environment. For instance, an inspector explained confronting new and unknown situations challenged their leadership by removing them from their comfort zone. "I think every time you put your hand up to relieve, you're out of your comfort zone" (I: 12). Another officer described being challenged when transitioning from a predictable corporate role to a dynamic coalface position. "Talk about the challenges of being more operationally focused" (Is: 2).

There was an additional job placement that had particular impact on officers: achieving detective status and being handpicked to run major criminal investigations. Detective appointments in Australia do not constitute a rank-based promotion. Nevertheless, a certain aura is attached to being a detective (Skolnick, 2002; Zalman, 2014), which infers officers are more grounded in the "reality" of being a crime fighter than their uniformed counterparts. All officers at senior rank had to work their way through uniformed "beat" jobs, however, the majority (80%) were also appointed detectives prior to being promoted to commissioned ranks—whether that appointment was casual or not is not settled. The leaders interviewed here either alluded directly or indirectly to the phenomenon, priding themselves on their ability as skilled investigators and understanding the nuances of running complex, intricate and at times protracted investigative components of police work.

> They all say 'walk a mile in their shoes'. Having done that, having worked up an operational style thing is just having an understanding of what people are going through *(Is: 4)*.

Detective skills are not necessarily equivalent to leadership skills, but it is part of the toolkit that officers needed to be recognised as a "real police officer" and hence be eligible for elevation up the ranks.

In conclusion, however, not all discussion of the value of "experience" in building leadership related to headline events in the officers' careers. The officers also spoke of the accumulated and incremental value of experience:

> I've been through just about every scenario known to man because I've been with the organisation so long … I've been fortunate that my experience has not just been in the field ... I've been in so many diverse places. I can apply a lot of my past experiences, and if I haven't actually experienced a particular thing, I can apply other experiences that I've had. I can say, 'Well, this will work, and this won't work. This would fly, this would sink …' [and] that has naturally brought my leadership to where it is *(Is: 5).*

## 7.4 Individual Characteristics

Officers recognised that their ability to rise to the challenge and opportunities was tempered by their personal characteristics. Analysing individual characteristics and their association with leadership development is difficult in study of this nature, and this difficulty is amplified by the relative homogeneity of the cohort in terms of gender, education, age and years of policing experience. Again, the participants were all individuals who had thrived in the development system and the police culture, so they are poorly positioned to distinguish between facilitative and inhibitive personal characteristics.

### 7.4.1 Resilience

However, *resilience* was a key characteristic repeatedly identified. The very nature of policing often results in leaders adopting a survivor mentality (Keane & Bell, 2014; Norcross,

2003). "I don't give up … I'm fully committed … if I believe in something I'll stick with it" (In: 4). Resilience, officers argued, was something that they built up under the onslaught of on-the-job challenges, and officers spoke of a need for a secondary characteristic in this regard: *patience*. For example, one officer, subject to a protracted internal misconduct investigation, remarked, "… you have to accept that this is going to take a year to two years before you're going to be looked on favourably again because it's just the nature of it" (In: 9). The officer grimaced and smiled, indicating his grudging acceptance of the uncomfortable situation. "Sometimes you find yourself benched", another said, speaking of a more general sidelining associated with a clash of personalities. "You're out of favour for a while but you go about your business and see what happens" (In: 7). "Riding out the storm", "in it for the long haul" and "sitting and waiting" were common motifs in relation to patience. This is consistent with the literature, where patience has been identified as a key attribute required in successful police officers (Baker, 2011; Ford, 2007).

### 7.4.2 Compliance

Policing is also conducted in a highly hierarchical context and, while blind obedience might be less emphasised than in say, military contexts, *compliance* is also a key characteristic of long-term success. Police organisations are paramilitary in nature and officers are instructed early in their training to be obedient and adhere to rules, policies and procedures (Haarr, 2005). There was a conflict between "rules are rules" – "…as an old veteran we have had it driven into us in our DNA: we do what we're told and we make it happen" (Is: 3). Despite their senior levels in the "Service", participants routinely complied with managements edicts even when decisions were perceived as wrong or unfair. "There's been times where you've just got to sit back and keep your mouth shut" (In: 9). Willingness to be compliant, or flexible, had an additional value to officers in navigating police culture. While the rules and

hierarchical structure were fixed, and required compliance, the fluid nature of demands, including changing political demands, meant that *flexibility* was also an asset.

### 7.4.3 Flexibility

This flexibility included willingness to take opportunities, to say "yes" even when the "opportunities" were difficult to manage: being available for developmental opportunities may have had costs in terms of work-life balance or family stability but pay-offs in terms of learning opportunities. This flexibility was close to *motivation* or drive to succeed. Participants felt taking on developmental opportunities was critical in terms of enhancing their leadership. In order to continually enhance their leadership, officers needed to be willing to undergo continuing self-development (Schafer, 2008, p. 17). These officers expressed a willingness to be so flexible to bosses' requests, it closely resembled *compliance* – mentioned previously.

> There are many reasons why people won't move somewhere…but I've always said yes…Whenever bosses have said, 'Go and do this', yeah, I go. I just go and do it. (Is:5). .

### 7.4.4 Intuition

Officers also referred to *intuition*, although it was usually cast in the more masculine sense of "gut instinct" or "flying by the seat of [your] pants" as helpful in dealing with the unpredictable and dynamic situations that made up a police officer's career. Lacking a clear play book, officers were forced to rely on less clear-cut signals such as sensing danger or opportunity to negotiate challenges faced. In addition to the individual factors that enhanced leadership development opportunities (resilience, compliance, flexibility, and intuition), the discourse revealed several factors that either may or were clearly identified as having constrained development.

### 7.4.5 Reluctance to Obtain Feedback

Surprisingly, officers admitted to being reluctant to use one of the tools that elsewhere they identified as aiding leadership development: feedback. "I'm not one for putting in for formal shit" an inspector declared (In: 2). One officer admitted only ever approaching superiors for feedback to obtain evidence to support applications for promotion, but otherwise avoided the option. Another confessed never daring to ask a superior for feedback – through fear of not wanting to appear incompetent in the eyes of subordinates. While frank in admitting their shortcomings, participants struggled to explain their reluctance to seek feedback. "That's a difficult question to reflect on. I don't know whether I've never really been one that goes looking for feedback specifically" (Is: 1). As another officer put it:

> I suppose it's just me – I don't go and seek feedback ... My expectation is that when I'm providing updates to my bosses that they will raise with me … and if they don't – well more fool them. I don't believe it's my role to ask them to comment. As a leader they should be asking the questions *(I: 8).*

Some participants argued seeking feedback wasn't in their job description, asserting it was their bosses' responsibility, while others did not want to be self-promoters or appear self-serving. Another officer believed feedback would occur automatically if their work performance warranted it. "If you're doing a good job, then the feedback comes as a natural flow" (Is: 4). Officers also described avoiding feedback because they were worried superiors would view them as being needy or lacking confidence. On reflection, one executive level officer appeared to ruefully admit seeking out feedback could possibly have benefited their learning. "I don't like being seen to be seeking out feedback ... that's probably the wrong thing because I can learn from that" (Is: 2). There was also a philosophy that if feedback was needed, it was likely to be only in cases of negative information, and that it would come

regardless. “If people want to give me feedback, they’ll give me feedback” (I: 12). Masculine culture was also a factor. “Never heard anything” said I: 12. “[even when I] have done [a] good job.” Overall, participants’ unwillingness to seek feedback appeared largely associated with fears about appearing weak, needy or lacking in confidence.

### 7.4.6 Introversion

Other officers identified introversion as an inhibitor of career and leadership development. Extraversion, related to the ability to self-promote as well as engage with other officers in ways that developed leadership skills, was identified by about a third of participants as a factor. “You’ve got to become a bit of a salesman … which doesn’t fit my personality. I’m very introverted” (In: 5). The officer added later, “I’m not a person who likes to sit there and tell people about all these magnificent things I’ve done” (In: 5).

The previous discussion summarised the key characteristics of participants, which helped facilitate their development as leaders. It is now timely to turn our discussion towards informing RQ3, by describing challenges that officers face, and how challenge is translated into leadership development, followed by an analysis of the degree to which support and feedback plays a role.

## 7.5 Challenge

The context of police work is unavoidably challenging, whether it be its very crisis-focused nature or its often oppositional and regularly unpredictable environment, which officers confront. Policing has also been described as one of the most stressful and risky jobs (Arter, 2007; Russell, Cole, & Jones, 2014). The sometimes dangerous aspects of police work means officers often experience elevated stress levels such as when pursuing suspects and discharging firearms (Nieuwenhuys & Oudejans, 2011). Garner (2017) found police leaders recognised the need to have an enhanced understanding of stresses associated with their role.

Officers in this study spoke about being on one side of the law, and facing various degrees of challenge—sometimes extreme—on the other side. The analysis showed both positive (eustress) and negative aspects of officers' involvement in challenging situations.

When officers described experiences that challenged their leadership, rather than their more general skills as a police officer, a number of key aspects emerged from the analysis including: feeling ill-equipped or underprepared; learning under pressure; conflicting demands; increased workload and greater responsibility; heightened scrutiny; learning from experience and making mistakes; stepping up and isolation. Each key aspect associated with challenge arguably could facilitate or constrain participants' leadership contingent upon differing contexts and variables present.

*Positive:* In various situations involving stressful and challenging roles, officers reported experiencing rapid advancements in technical and leadership skills including acquiring greater confidence and enhanced communication skills. Whether the challenge left a net benefit on a career was partly a matter of whether it was faced with sufficient resources and support on the part of the officer confronting the challenge. For example, one officer put in command of a flood disaster in a remote location declared:

> It was tough, but I learned a hell of a lot ... short-term pain for long-term gain … and I came out the other side pretty good … at the end of the day. I learned a lot … I had absolutely no training in disaster management. I had no idea what I was supposed to be doing *(I: 12).*

This officer and others noted that command and control leadership skills acquired in routine, non-extreme settings were not necessarily transferrable to highly unusual, dynamic and uncontrolled environments:

> I can honestly say that my operational currency was low, so I was quite nervous and scared … It was like turning up to a new school and not knowing anyone at the school (Is: 2).

So, without sufficient challenge, officers reported feeling bored and listless to the point that their development as leaders was stunted or reversed. "It's the challenge that gets you going … If you're not stretched as a leader every now and again, you're going to go backwards" (I: 8). The same officer poignantly referred to the continuum of stress from suboptimal to optimal to literally overwhelming. "If you're not stretched a little bit, not all the time because you'll snap … as long as you're not always stretched and challenged because then you'll break" (I: 8).

While officers may not have directly identified errors/mistakes as being a positive, they commonly acknowledged that one of the side-benefits of challenge was the opportunity to constructively fail. "[I learned] by touch and learning from mistakes," one officer (Is: 3) admitted. Another officer elaborated on the process of learning from making mistakes.

> You learn by mistake. That is probably the one thing I have done throughout my career … Everyone makes mistakes but what I think classifies you – whether you were successful or not is whether you learn from those mistakes and can build from issues you've had in the past and move forward (In: 12).

Paradoxically, mistakes contained inherent danger in the risk adverse culture of policing. Officers described the culture of policing as being "less forgiving" for senior officers compared to rookie officers. "I think people, talking from experience, know that it's an unforgiving organisation if you get burnt with stuff" (Is: 3). Sensitivity to failure was particularly present in officers' accounts of when they were on the cusp of promotion.

As noted earlier, officers accrue benefits from “stepping up” into new management roles. The act of stepping up does automatically mean additional stress. The most demanding leadership transitions involve officers moving in to supervisor roles because it entails decisions that may alienate them from work colleagues of the same rank (Hess et al., 2015). In terms of rank, most officers pinpointed the transition from sergeant (supervisor) to senior sergeant (manager) as a step when their leadership was particularly tested and found wanting, with old relationships stretched and broken, and new ones not yet forged. Participants reported the transition into management functions involving complex and difficult decisions concerning staff and resources. As previously highlighted, a cultural chasm exists between lower-level police at the coalface (street cops) and higher-level deskbound cops or “pen pushers” (management cops) (see Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Lee & Punch, 2004; Reuss-Ianni, 2011). Participants explained their sergeant’s role didn’t sufficiently stretch them as the role meant remaining “one of the boys”. Additionally, a sergeant’s role at the coalface is primarily reliant upon technical policing skills. However, at management levels the focus changes from the task to the individual which involves a heavier reliance on people skills to ensure success.

*Negative:* A critical aspect of challenge that emerged from the analysis concerned officers feeling ill-equipped and underprepared to cope with challenging situations confronting them. Participants attributed their lack of preparedness to either inadequate formal training or insufficient on-the-job exposure. The analysis revealed a tension between officers’ self-imposed expectations and expectations from superiors. Officers described feeling pressured to meet superiors’ expectations to perform at heightened levels. According to Lindberg, Rantatalo, and Haake (2015), senior police leaders reported that superiors concentrated on performance management issues including their ability to lead high performing teams. Participants also reported negative stress associated with feelings of failure and

disappointment when performance levels failed to match self-imposed standards. The analysis highlighted participants' perceptions that bosses used challenging roles to test the prowess of subordinates by literally throwing them in the "deep end" to see how they would cope. The tension between self-imposed expectations and lofty requirements imposed by superiors appeared to compound participants' stress and strain and exacerbate the pressure cooker work environment.

Most of the references to negative stress in the "Service" were relatively indirect. While high profile, high-stress incidents featured heavily in officers' accounts, they also cited challenge arising from increased workloads, longer hours and incrementally greater responsibilities. One officer, for example, required to draw in additional detectives to deal with a homicide investigation, spoke of experiencing acute stress, even though resource provisioning may well represent a relatively mundane stressors in the context of a murder inquiry.

> As a leader you're really stressed ... when you are drawn between the QPS core function, the budgetary restriction and the requirements to achieve a particular result and meet community expectations (I: 6).

The demand-driven nature of policing involves regular attendance at crisis situations involving unpredictable workloads which prevents leaders from deploying sufficient and adequately trained personnel (Macdonald, 1995).

Some of the officers referred to merely putting in long hours, not out of operational demands, but cultural demand. Scholarly discourse within police related literature has coined the phrase "presenteeism" to describe those who feel pressured to conform and work excessively long work hours to fit the organisational vision of a leader (Garbarino, Cuomo, Chiorri, & Magnavita, 2013; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Villiers, 2003). An alternative interpretation of "presenteeism" articulated by Villiers (2003) involved police leaders who

lacked confidence and over-compensated by trying to be omnipresent, working lengthy hours and scrutinising every detail "ad nauseam". Notwithstanding, whether long work hours were truly demand-driven or culture-driven, participants reported that increased workloads and greater responsibilities usually resulted in positive leadership development outcomes.

Another form of stress officers felt comfortable discussing was the stress caused by conflicting demands. For example, conflict between supporting subordinates and complying with organisational obligations and meeting community expectations emerged; a finding reflected in the literature (Mastrofski & Ritti, 1996; Shane, 2010). An inspector, for instance, described responding to a protracted riot in a remote community where officer safety was threatened. When urgent requests to HQ for reinforcements were ignored, subordinates vented their frustration at them. "…the unreasonableness being hurled at you [by subordinates] … how you ought to do something, and you're trying to look after your people and deliver what the hierarchy expects of you" (I: 3). Some officers described the internalised conflict that arose as extremely stressful and treated them more as a survival experience than something with positive learning outcomes.

Overall, directly discussing the negative side of stress was not something that officers appeared comfortable with doing. The mostly male participants may have also been reluctant to divulge personal frailties to the (male) researcher who was a previous serving commissioned officer. However, one officer, put in charge of a multi-jurisdictional counter terrorism exercise, admitted he was tipped over the edge:

> It basically felt like it was out of control … because I felt like I just wasn't performing. I felt like I was out of my depth … I was overwhelmed and basically became non-operational … I was just standing there with limited capacity to understand what was going on around me *(I: 14).*

Usually, however, respondents spoke in more muted tones of the acute or chronic stress load, occasionally being hospitalised with stress-related conditions.

Another aspect of challenge that officers referred to frequently was the issue of scrutiny. Officers described the stress of being subjected to heightened scrutiny by media, the community and external bodies. High levels of scrutiny associated with policing has been noted in the extant literature (Alpert & MacDonald, 2001; Hoque, Arends, & Alexander, 2004). One officer, in charge of a country station raided by anti-corruption investigators, which led to multiple officers being dismissed on criminal charges, described the additional stress of the operation proceeding under a spotlight.

> That was a very challenging time ... Just the mental stress of the CJC [Criminal Justice Commission]; they were there for weeks, interviewing people, reinterviewing people … more staff, stood down, dismissed. It was just very taxing; it was emotional for the staff, because it was such a public thing. And when you live in a small town, everybody looks at you (Is: 5).

Officers described serious criminal investigations fuelled by media speculation that captured community attention. The intensity of external interest often led to a "closing of ranks" and "bunker[ing] down". As previously noted, police culture is characterised by solidarity and suspicion (Shanahan, 2000; Workman-Stark, 2017). Another cultural hallmark that emerged in the text was officers possessing an inflated sense of mission (Bacon, 2014; Crank, 2014), and participants' accounts often referred to their frustration with public scrutiny which they perceived as distracting them from their primary "crime-fighting" role.

## 7.6 Support

The scholarly literature confirms the critical importance of support offered to officers in meeting the challenges of the job (Jones, 2018; Metcalfe & Dick, 2001; Muller, Maclean, & Biggs, 2009). Similarly, the literature is replete with discussion and evidence on the importance that subordinates attach to police superiors providing appropriate feedback (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Muller et al., 2009; Schafer, 2009). Beck and Wilson (1997) found that the level of organisational commitment could be enhanced by different factors, including superiors providing positive feedback to subordinates.

When discussing forces that promoted their leadership, officers described positive relationships with superiors as being particularly pivotal. The characteristics of these relationships that led to growth and advancement included support and the provisioning of feedback. Superiors, rather than colleagues at the same level, were critical in supporting advancement and development. While "feedback" and "support" (due to the division within the academic literature) were put forward separately in the questioning of participants, responses from officers indicated the two were closely entwined. For instance, officers' descriptions of supportive superiors regularly included examples of constructive feedback. Similarly, officers' examples of positive and usable feedback appeared confined to supportive superiors.

Therefore, we have in the following analysis, where practical, merged responses but distinguished the two constructs where possible. Disentangling the two was more feasible when examining *unsupportive* leadership and *negative* feedback, so we examine these two aspects later in the chapter. The following section will be structured to first examine the role of relationships and networks, then the positive aspects of supportive leadership (including

the provisioning of constructive feedback) before considering the negative aspects of leadership and feedback.

### 7.6.1 Relationships with Superiors

The literature highlights that officers need to establish social capital or build supportive relationships with superiors to achieve success and advancement in policing (Campbell, 2009; Chan, Devery, & Doran, 2003). The Australian and New Zealand Police Leadership Strategy (ANZPLS) lists "building and managing relationships" as a key competency required in police executives. It was a notion that the officers interviewed for this study clearly embraced. "If you've got someone who, for whatever reason, you don't gel with or doesn't see the value in you, you're not going anywhere", as one officer (In: 9) explained. Three themes emerged from the analysis of relationships with superiors: the centrality of trust; modelling; and strategic career progression.

*Trust – The* central importance of establishing trust with subordinates in order for police leaders to be effective has been stressed in the extant literature (Baker, 2011; Hess et al., 2015; Schafer, 2008). The high stakes nature of police work, including physical harm and legal obligations, means that it is unsurprising that trust is a crucial ingredient in the relationship between officers and leaders (Schafer, 2008). Even the word "trust", much less the concept, emerged repeatedly in the discourse of the officers. Trust-related discourse ranged from the warm and personal ("There were people … in my heart and soul I trusted implicitly" (In 2) where the trust relationship "worked" for the officer, to the "cold" cases where trust was breached: "trust is a big part of leadership … It socked my confidence … It knocked me for six … I've also withdrawn into my shell significantly" (Is: 4). Trust worked both ways; the need for them to trust their superiors, and the need for their subordinates to

trust them. The earlier quote came from a context, notably, that related to the need for feedback:

> There were people I had worked with and in my own heart and soul trusted implicitly, that if I needed advice or needed a bit of guidance or a bit of direction, I could go to and say, 'Listen, I need ten minutes. Get your ass in here and shut the door … Because I don't ask for advice very often … If I ask for it, I really fucked up (In: 2).

Trust formed the basis for the officer to seek, and hopefully obtain, honest feedback. This was picked up by another officer, again speaking of a superior. "It [progression] comes down to the relationship with your DO [district officer] and the honesty that you have with them" (I: 11).

*Modelling.* There is a body of evidence around the positive effects that police leaders as role models can have on officers' development (Andreescu & Vito, 2010; Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Huberts, Kaptein, & Lasthuizen, 2007; More & Miller, 2014). Dobby et al. (2004), for instance, recommended the best approach to counter ineffective leadership in policing was the use of positive leaders as role models. Negative role models ("bad apples") have also been highlighted as influential in the literature, particularly in work exploring ethical and honest conduct and professional behaviours (Baker, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). Much of the literature on role modelling tends to refer instead to "mentoring", which instead involves a direct and targeted form of modelling combined with tailored advice, and officers did not always distinguish between the two modes.

Notably only one participant referred to their own role in modelling behaviours to junior staff. Instead, officers spoke repeatedly how their development as leaders was moulded and shaped by observing and attempting to emulate their superiors.

> A lot of my leadership skills have developed from watching other senior leaders that I've worked under or observed. That's within the "Service" and also external to the "Service" and the way they operate ... looking at their take on leadership and management type skills and developing a skill which was needed for that situation (Is: 4).

The above description is rather dry, but on occasions, emotion crept into the accounts of officers describing role models who had been influential in their development:

> There was certainly a change in my leadership style and I think having the role models particularly, like [name of senior executive] who was a very authentic and caring sort of person, and I tried to emulate a lot of that in what I did and then putting all of that into practice (Is: 6).

More emotion could be seen in officers' accounts of negative role models. The phenomenon of reverse role modelling is less common and, with the exception of Rossiter (2014), scant attention has been paid to this concept in the extant literature. However, the frequency in which officers referred directly and indirectly to the impact of "bad apples" suggest this issue needs addressing. Rossiter (2014, p. 115) defines a reverse role model as "an individual who has the opposite effect on a role model; someone whose behaviour you do not want to imitate". Put simply, reverse role models can teach people how to avoid replicating certain leadership behaviours (Rossiter, 2014). Some research has alluded to this concept including studies indicating a strong relationship between role modelling and inappropriate officer behaviour (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Huberts et al., 2007). "You learn more from a bad boss – than a good one", one officer (In: 9) declared. That was not a common explicit view, however, officers frequently cited receiving poor, harsh or unfair treatment inflicted by

superiors. Officers described feeling chastened by the experience, vowing to never treat any other officer in the same vein. As one officer sarcastically put it:

> [He offered a] fine example of how a leader shouldn't operate, because I walked away from that and had multiple people saying, 'What was all that about ...' As a leadership thing … that stuck in my mind. It was a learning for me that I'd never do that (Is: 4).

Speaking of the influence of an infamous district officer, one officer put it this way:

> [He was a] really poor example of leadership within the district and unfortunately it's permeated through a lot of the commissioned officers here and even down to senior sergeant level. In my view it has unfortunately set a poor example across the district … It is (his behaviour) really is in terms of what not to do, a bad example (In: 14).

The value of modelling was commonly expressed in terms of "key people" offering positive and negative role models, but modelling also appeared to play a teaching role at a more granular level. Officers, working closely with tightly-knit teams were picking up messages from superiors in general, not just from one or two stand-out personalities. "Going through your career, you pick up little bits and pieces … I just picked little snippets from things they did, and I think it's development, watching those leadership skills and see how things work. (In: 5). Finally, officers highlighted the issue of timing of modelling/mentoring as critically important. Providing timely guidance and mentoring, particularly during highly stressful and testing situations, was isolated as critical. Similarly, guidance during early stages of officers' careers, or during early stages after promotion, was seen as more influential.

### *7.6.2* Strategic Career Progression

Another element of support evident in participants' responses involved investing in strategic career progression. Burston (2016) coined the phrase "strategic career progression", which stressed the need for individuals to focus on building lengthy relationships with mentors to facilitate their professional and personal development. There was a Machiavellian component to the officers' understanding of career progression and the role that relationships played. Some officers articulated it was "obvious" that "who you know" was critical to advancement and that they had purposely set out to develop long-term relationships they knew were required for promotion. Typically, officers presented themselves as being ambitious and career minded with a keen eye for promotion. Participants articulated the connection between forming a supportive relationship with superiors and accessing developmental opportunities. The difference between officers succeeding and failing in policing has been attributed to, among other things, their ability to establish mutually supportive relationships with a network of superiors (Campbell, 2009; Chan et al., 2003; Van Maanen, 1975).

### 7.6.3 The Supportive Leader: Key Characteristics

Officers frequently spoke about characteristics of supportive leaders that they sought out in their careers. These leaders had a number of key components. They had pedagogical skill, were good communicators, were honest and ethical, knowledgeable and credible, approachable and caring, and finally provided opportunities and rewards. We will deal with each of these characteristics in turn.

Participants identified the need for their superiors to be good teachers. The significant role police leaders undertake as teachers or trainers have been highlighted (Garner, 2018; Haake, Rantatalo, & Lindberg, 2017; Perez & Barkhurst, 2012). When participants in the current

study spoke of the pedagogical role of superiors, they used terms like “development” and “support” to describe what otherwise amounted to teaching. One interviewee, for example, spoke of a district manager as having a “hands-on” role in development. “He (district inspector) really developed his staff ... To me, he was very pivotal in my career” (In: 5). The same officer noted that police actively sought out leaders with teaching skill:

> He (the district inspector) really developed his staff ... I don’t know that he always saw this as development … a number of people I saw leave (the district) ... went with great skill-sets that were quite keenly sought after. To me, he was very pivotal in my career (In: 5).

Officers repeatedly stressed the critical need for superiors to be adept in communication skills, specifically concerning the provision of meaningful feedback, that is, feedback that could be converted easily into action. Research undertaken by Metcalfe and Dick (2001) in the UK police found a positive link between providing accurate feedback on performance and officer commitment. Participants in this current study indicated a high level of appreciation of candid feedback from superiors regarding their work performance, particularly advice concerning the officers’ relative strengths and weakness.

> He [the district officer] was quite clear about strengths and weaknesses, and to his credit, focused more on my strengths but identified my weaknesses (I: 11).

Some officers expressed feeling daunted by straightforward feedback but were receptive because a trusting relationship existed. In addition, officers expressed how this direct feedback was made palatable because of the respect and high esteem held for their boss, with one officer (I: 11) noting that one of his most influential superiors had used the term “don’t get in their [subordinate’s] sandpit” to emphasise feedback needed to come from an appropriate standpoint.

More generally, the value of communication skills in superior officers' guidance and support of leadership development was identified. Recent research (Garner, 2017) confirms the prominence of communication skills as a key determinant of police leadership, and officers typically referred to "good" leaders as possessing superior verbal and non-verbal communication skills. This analysis also revealed officers believed good communications skills became more critical at higher ranks when leading change and diverse teams with conflicting motivations and agendas. For instance, an executive level officer seconded to head an external investigative team, described communication and people skills acquired in the new role. "It enhanced my communication skills, significantly … valuing and seeking input from the staff is a huge learning I got out of that" (Is: 4). Officers also emphasised the importance of superiors possessing good listening skills, confirming the literature findings (Baker, 2011; Haake et al., 2017; Schafer, 2008). "He highlighted the importance of actually listening to everybody else regardless of what level they might be ... He was a … very, very good listener" (In: 6).

Finally, there was an emotional/motivational element to officers' accounts of the importance of good communication. Good communication often translated into a sense of self belief:

> The mentoring that I got from [supervisors name] … was what gave me the [belief] and the fact that I can do the job that they're asking me to do (I: 10).

Not surprisingly, the importance for ethics, honesty and integrity has been stressed in the literature (Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008). The theme emerged in the data, although the issue was not prominent. Rarely were there specific mentions of behaviour that directly and bluntly violated the law or police ethics. However, officers did refer to dishonesty in feedback, which was linked to the importance of listening, noted earlier. "The feedback from the floods was the first time I saw

where they really listened to everything," one officer, who faced a weather crisis, declared (Is: 3). "They came out and said give us your honest opinion and they gave us…their honest opinion". Another added that in stepping up to a new operational manager's role they were subjected to "frank and open discussions about issues … He certainly has no problems with pointing out where people needed to lift their game" (I: 11). As with the discussion on communication where officers were given "honesty" with a developmental slant, it was appreciated even when somewhat threatening to self-confidence.

In order to provide the required support, officers emphasised that superiors needed to possess good operational policing knowledge, coupled with having a reputation as being a "good copper". This finding aligns with the literature which highlights the critical importance that police leaders possess good knowledge or technical expertise (Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Lindberg et al., 2015; Schafer, 2008) and being seen as credible in the organisation (Bryman et al., 1996; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). For officers in this study, having support delivered by leaders seen as knowledgeable or credible was influential in their perception of value. The sense that "good" leaders are ones who have earned their "stripes" is central to the literature. A "good copper was (and to a large extent still is) posited on the practical experience and learning by doing" (Lee & Punch, 2004, p. 240). Officers' dialogues were peppered with snide remarks directed towards senior colleagues who lacked the "street cred" of those with operational (including detective) experience.

Officers also described the importance of their superiors being approachable and caring. The extant literature has also highlighted that effective police leaders were found to have caring attitudes towards their staff (Haake et al., 2017; Murphy & Drodge, 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2010a) and also be approachable towards subordinates (Deluga & Souza, 1991; Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Murphy & Drodge, 2004). This "softer" side of

policing stands in contrast to the rugged, individualistic and macho elements of police culture (Beehr, Johnson, & Nieva, 1995; Kirschman, Kamena, & Fay, 2015). The largely male sample of senior officers, steeped in experience in that deeply entrenched culture, were always likely to hold back on expressions that touched on this softer side of management and leadership. Nevertheless, officers found a way to express this element in a manner that still accorded with the culture (e.g. "just to know that there was somebody who gave two fucks was a plus" (I: 2)). This kind of support was separate to the formal provision of well-being referrals. Such referrals are usually reserved for extreme cases such as police officer deaths or serious injury. Nevertheless, officers repeatedly referred to their appreciation of receiving emotional support by superiors and spoke warmly of superiors who offered this support: "He [supervisor's name] [is] genuinely compassionate and supportive of his staff … he's very caring" (I: 5).

Officers repeatedly referred to supportive superiors who provided them with ready access to developmental opportunities, often in the guise of rewards or incentives that helped facilitate their development. The scholarly research also highlights a key characteristic of effective police leaders entails identifying and providing opportunities for staff to develop (Densten, 2003; Fleming, 2004; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013). This aspect of police leadership involves leaders paying attention to the specific requirements of their subordinates, including strengths and weaknesses, and tailoring these opportunities and rewards to suit. Officers acknowledged how effective leaders used these opportunities both as strategies to grow their leadership and as rewards. Sometimes this linking of opportunity with rewards was explicit: "I remember the boss at the time kind of rewarded me with 'Well, we're going to make you the team leader for this … because you've done some really good work". *(In: 4).* Another officer felt indebted to an assistant commissioner who afforded him a developmental opportunity that culminated in promotion. "I still think it was (senior executives name)

willingness to find an opportunity for me to help me develop skills that I would never have got … and I still thank (him) to this day" (In: 10).

Participants also stressed the importance of their bosses affording them resources, both to manage their roles and to directly develop their leadership. Officers reported the provision of timely resources by superiors when feeling challenged or tested proved pivotal. This was particularly important on occasions when officers were able to articulate their needs, and the hierarchy responded with tangible support:

> I told some people [their superiors] … I was struggling, and I had no idea about what I was supposed to be doing. They [superiors] were fantastic ... they got someone from major events ... to walk me through what I had to do. They eventually sent out another inspector to take over the district disaster role and he continued to perform the DO [district officer] role (I: 12).

This is an example of good communication being linked with support through the provisioning of timely resources. Providing adequate resources so officers can execute the task has been identified as effective leadership behaviour (Bryman et al., 1996; Dobby et al., 2004). Conversely, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) found superiors who failed to provide subordinates with sufficient resources were indicative of poor leadership behaviour. One officer spoke of direct financial support on a major criminal investigation helping not just his own ability to lead, but to be able to support the team morale:

> He (supervising A/C) took a fair burden off my shoulders in relation to financial approval to do things in the briefing that I mentioned before. And the troops seeing that we could do that, really engaged them, and kicked them, and helped their spirits and morale. So, it was a real flow-on effect. So, having that layer of support was absolutely fantastic (Is: 4).

## 7.7 Unsupportive Leadership

The characteristics of unsupportive leaders include a number that can be seen as opposite of those of identified for supportive leaders in the previous section. Subsequently, unsupportive leaders were poor communicators, untrustworthy, micromanagers, unethical, close-minded, capricious and judgemental. However, some additional characteristics were associated with unsupportive leaders, including political, conservative and risk averse, self-serving, apathetic, and unwilling to provide opportunities or resources to support development. This section presents the data and findings in relation to unsupportive leadership characteristics as they pertain to leadership development.

Participants did not struggle to provide examples when poor communication with superiors adversely impacted their leadership and culminated in them being marginalised, immobilised and occasionally having careers ended. One officer concisely homed in on one superior's leadership style, labelling him "interpersonally impaired" (I: 2). Officers provided various examples that leaders failed to communicate coherently and consistently. Participants described how some bosses' communication was aggressively confrontational while others became distant and detached, withdrawing to their offices and avoiding face to face contact by delivering key messages via email. For instance, an officer described during a drawn-out investigation that contact with superiors cooled by deliberately avoiding any discussions or dialogue surrounding the topic: "everyone shuts down. There's no conversation" (I: 9). In the absence of communication, development of skills occurred in a vacuum. Poor communication was at times described in these terms: a failure to translate the hierarchical structure of policing into a functional network of communication. Instead, officers were often seen as reverting to a "default" (i.e. negative, aggressive, coercive, intimidating and threatening) communication position. " She [superior's name] rang me and threatened me …

that as long as she lived she would make sure that I never got a job in the (name of region) region" (Is: 2).

This style led to a withdrawal on both sides ("he just wouldn't talk to me basically which makes leadership pretty difficult" (In: 14)). This breach of communication flow was also characterised by a reduction in trust.

> This particular individual [supervisor] was quite challenging. It was the most stressful thing I've ever had to do because his office is five minutes from mine. So, it was like the Cold War. It's like the Russians and the Americans … He would send me emails rather than come and [see me] (I: 11).

### 7.7.1 Untrustworthiness

Participants underscored the pivotal importance of trusting their bosses, because when their trust in superiors was broken, relationships ceased being functional and productive. Wheatcroft, Alison, and McGrory (2012) found trust in policing was critical for developing effective work-based relationships. A participant, for instance, described their career was purportedly sabotaged by unscrupulous superiors who spread malicious rumours about them to a senior executive. "The level of trust that's been burnt all together" (Is: 4). On a less malicious but also less context-specific level, participants spoke of a general failure of some superiors to offer trust to subordinates to undertake projects, potentially making mistakes, and engage in the learning required to develop leadership.

Akin to untrustworthiness, senior police leaders who are unethical can result in a destructive and poisonous organisational culture (Macdonald, 1995). As noted earlier, there were relatively few cases of outright unethical or illegal behaviour, and relatively more cases of suboptimal levels of honesty and trustworthiness. For example, an officer felt galled after being "passed-over" for a relieving opportunity when the district manager seemingly flouted

official policy by selecting another officer who hadn't applied for the vacancy. Another noted that mixed messages on following rigid guidelines tended to flow when pressure increased.

> When the whips are cracking, and that sort of incident occurs, they are a mere guide and they're not referred to depending on who's on top … they make their own rules then because of the pressures from the government (Is: 3).

These moments still proved to be a learning experience, although whether the recipients of the "lesson" learned what they ideally should have was something that the respondents did reflect on:

> There was a level of dishonesty provided to us ... with respect to the restructure, how it was going to work, how it was going to operate … I guess the learning from that is open and honest consultation. I don't think the senior executive … did that very well (Is: 4).

Participants also provided various examples of not being trusted by superiors to undertake fundamental duties commensurate with their rank and experience and were repeatedly questioned for decisions made. This kind of micro-management gradually seeped away trust:

> We were literally treated like children as well accounting for our eight hours and having to go and check up on people if they're asleep ... it's not good leadership in my view. We could be out doing something better instead of smacking people because they're exhausted (In: 13).

Another officer's description of being forced to make spot checks on staff, to catch them napping on duty, verges on bullying (I: 13). The tendency for police supervisors and managers to over-manage or "micromanage" has been stressed in the literature (Halbert,

2014; O'Leary, Resnick-Luetke, & Monk-Turner, 2011; Rainguet & Dodge, 2001; Schafer, 2008, 2010a, 2010b). Micro-management of subordinates was not, the officers suggested, rare:

> …[W]orking at a regional office where you have ACs [assistant commissioners] above you, and they want to run the show. The QPS is full of this … I have always found that working here with AC above you holds you back … If I had not been a DO [district officer] … where out of sight is out of mind (Is: 3).

Lack of flexibility and openness to new ideas and change from officers holding incumbent senior positions was identified, particularly by the more junior officers interviewed for this study. Respondents described being frustrated at the narrow-minded attitude displayed by superiors who steadfastly refused to agree to requests, particularly of a more innovative nature. Being closed-minded and critical were related to superiors' inability to provide feedback in a form that could be translated into change.

Here are three officers' summaries:

> Only … negative [feedback] … you should have done this, or you should have done that. Well sorry, I didn't think of that when I'd made eight thousand decisions in 10 minutes … There was no positivity of you did this really well ... it was all negative feedback. It wasn't even feedback (I: 13).

> Police [superiors] generally are not that good at giving feedback, and criticism being levelled at officers is easy in hindsight. It's typical that you normally get criticism after an event … (Is: 6).

> I think the QPS has really cornered the market on being able to give negative feedback as something that's just part of your life. We're used to it. (Is: 3)

The results suggest that poor quality, badly focused, and negative feedback from superiors was common. Instead, it appeared at times a default mode for senior executives in the "Service" in delivering feedback, alert to failures or inadequacies, and failing to see events in context. "You're getting smashed three times in a row; it's like you get the cuts from the principal and then you go down. It was an interesting experience … and to me that says a lot about that cohort [senior executives]", was one typical comment (Is: 2). The respondents frequently remarked that once they had "failed" once, they were "ear-marked" at least for a period with that failure: "They seem unwilling to accept they could have developed and got better at it" (I: 3).

As previously noted, if officers actively sought feedback, they may be perceived as weak or needy:

> There is also a culture within the "Service" about getting feedback. If you ask for it – it might come across as lacking confidence or needing reassurance. I don't generally go and say 'how do you think I'm doing?' I don't go to my peers or subordinates either, but I probably should. I don't, and I just think that most people will tell me how I am going whether I ask them or not. I think if I'm doing good they'll tell me, and it's happened in the past … that's their personality. They need to have that to bolster them (Is: 3).

Officers underscored the tendency for unsupportive bosses to act in a capricious manner. This tendency to behave in an inflexible, impulsive, erratic and unpredictable manner may be related to job pressures or strict hierarchical policing structures, or organisational culture, but either way, according to officers, it was not an ideal climate in which to develop their leadership. Schafer (2010b) identified capriciousness as a behaviour that ineffective police leaders characteristically exhibited. Police leaders who acted in an unreliable, impulsive and

unpredictable manner tested the resolve of subordinates who instead wanted leaders to behave in a predictable, reliable and consistent manner (Schafer, 2010b, p. 741). Officers in this study reported feeling disempowered, with their authority as leaders usurped. In fact, some noted their "real" role was to make those above them look good, and that as senior officers, they were like "chess pieces" being shuffled around to suit a (often inexplicable) grander plan. One officer reported having a key member of his team inexplicably removed from a homicide case:

> … he (the superior) took a particular fellow out of [the] investigation … and he gave me a gob full and I said 'you take him out of there and that investigation would never get solved' … Well, they're still unsolved to this day (In: 2).

Related to close mindedness, the analysis revealed judgemental and critical superiors were found to impede an officer's development by failing to provide appropriate support and feedback to progress their leadership. The peculiar nature of police work, requiring judgement and assessment of others as part of the role, appeared to influence this aspect of the officer's own performance, but being on the receiving end was nevertheless not pleasant. Officers expressed feeling dismayed at being harshly judged and unfairly criticised for their leadership performance when instead desperately wanting constructive and positive feedback and support. An officer expressed disappointment at superiors who habitually judged and assigned labels to officers, which tended to stick, despite genuine attempts to develop perceived leadership weaknesses.

> … it's almost like senior executives walk around with a label maker and just stick it on people … they don't accept if a person is engaged in development, that a weakness that they might have had at one stage in their career (I: 3).

Just as officers themselves spoke of needing to deploy political strategy in enhancing their careers, they saw their superiors as engaging in such manoeuvres. The need for senior police leaders to possess "political acumen" as opposed to being "political motivated" has also been highlighted in the extant literature (O'Leary et al., 2011), but officers didn't necessarily make the distinction. "Politics" was cast as universally negative, and positive attributes were cast as trustworthy, ethical and supportive behaviour. The following is a snapshot offered of the "political animal" by one officer:

> The worst thing is when you have someone above you who is a political beast, and they're not really interested in giving any feedback. Most of the times I would simply hope you don't come to them with an issue because I don't want any black mark on their name … They're very confident, very articulate, and they're almost like Sir Humphrey out of Yes Minister. They are avoidance experts (I: 1).

Officers wanted rules, regulations and standards consistently applied rather than based on one's relationship with superiors, and they expressed contempt for superiors who were seemingly only motivated by personal gain through "working" their networks. For instance, an officer mused over a self-serving supervisor who seemingly remained just long enough in their region to derive quick political gains before moving on to their next assignment. "… he was a very slippery beast" (I: 1). Officers described that trust was a major casualty in relationships with politically-driven superiors. When trust was breached, officers described the relationship deteriorating to the point where they no longer felt supported by superiors. "… you identify very quickly who you don't trust – and there are those people – and the ones that either are just politically very slippery" (I: 1).

These "political animals" were regarded as those who were most determinedly and explicitly ambitious. Officers noted the self-focus came at the detriment of a team focus. Schafer

(2010b) found officers who were obsessively self-focused at the expense of others were perceived as poor police leaders. Participants described feeling unsupported and abandoned by superiors who lacked interest in their development. Officers argued this lack of support was part of the risk averse nature of the "game". Senior executives reportedly avoided directly interfering at least in part to avoid contact with failure that might tarnish their careers. "… Everyone is concerned about their reputation …" (Is: 3). Another officer expressed dismay with superiors who purportedly abandoned them after an offender was fatally injured by police in a siege incident:

> There has been a death that wasn't the outcome we all wanted and they (police superiors) wanted to distance themselves from it or be non-committal, in case it went bad (In: 5).

Officers subsequently felt their superiors' conservative or risk-adverse behaviour constrained their ability as leaders to support the development of officers beneath them. Considering, as noted earlier in this chapter, that policing is characterised by a high degree of "action learning", having action restrained by fear of failure would not be considered conducive to good learning experiences. In practice, the "Service" was characterised by lack of agility:

> The QPS is full of this … we will let you do what you have to, and our appetite for risk is far higher and no one will get killed over it as long as you do the right thing? That's a lot of talk … sticking to such rigid guidelines as set by policies and procedures. You have to sometimes have a go and try different things … That is probably the biggest hindrance on my development of leadership (Is: 3).

Conservativism also carried risks in terms of policing outcomes. For instance, an inspector recalled heading up a major criminal investigation and exceeding the budget by deploying additional investigators to solve the case. The officer reflected on this perilous decision fully

cognisant a poor outcome would mean being roundly castigated by supervisors for making the wrong call. "Whenever blame can be moved, it's moved" (I: 6).

The culture inhibited innovation. Describing an incident in which a police officer fatally wounded an offender, one inspector noted:

> When you … think outside of the box you get … criticised for being a bit out there … They [superiors] say … 'oh no, we've always done it this way and we'll just keep doing it because it's always worked. Why fix something that's not broken?' (In: 13)

A characteristic, which officers underlined as unsupportive, was the tendency for bosses to behave in a self-serving way, which revealed itself during political manoeuvrings. One characteristic of the highly political operator was the offering of support with conditions attached. "I think that QPS still has a very supportive culture," said one officer (Is: 4), "and I think that supportive culture depends on the situation or scenario". When errors or other negative events occur, support or patronage may be dropped. For instance, an inspector described being subjected to a protracted internal investigation where the hierarchy appeared supportive initially, however, support waned as the investigation dragged on. The isolation was crippling "so, whilst they may say there is some support in some aspects, it runs dry pretty quick and it's pretty shallow" (I: 9). The process of offering and withdrawing support, in this context, was cast as being a process, but the process was experienced by officers as being bureaucratic politically, and ultimately debilitating for their development as leaders:

> As far as the organisation itself goes … I don't think they are necessarily good at supporting individuals. They see the support as the existence of a process. So if you have a problem with a staff member, they'll say, 'well there's a process there, follow the process', and often it's not the fact that you're not following the process; it's the fact that you need both moral support and organisation support (I: 1).

By contrast, with the "political animal" officers also saw risks in having managers who took the opposite almost apathetic approach to leadership development. Participants seemed also equally aggrieved at those who adopted a hands-off style of leadership in relation to support and feedback. This absence was not purely apathy. Some officers ascribed unwillingness to engage in fear of confrontation or the risk of being accused of bullying or harassment. Officers also attributed reluctance by superiors to confront under-performing subordinates, particularly relatively assertive subordinates. "I think … people [supervisors] are afraid to give feedback for fear of the consequences of it. Especially so with the younger generation now. It's just so 'she's picking on me, it's not fair'" (I: 13).

Alternatively, in some cases the "hands-off" approach was ascribed to a high degree of cynicism or lack of emotion: the so-called "battle-hardened" veteran. "At inspector level, the 'Service' expects you to deal with all this stress because you have the experience and you've seen it all before" (I: 13). In cases of the hands-off manager, regardless of the attribution of cause, the response of subordinates was withdrawal, for fear of being perceived as incompetent or needy, or due to the expectation that support and feedback would not be forthcoming.

> If I was to say what support did the senior leaders gave me when I went to be DO [district officer], I'd say none, unless I reached out to them and said, 'Can I meet? I'd like to discuss X issues and seek your advice on it,' then they're more than happy to assist ... So, I don't think I was actually given anything, but if I asked for it I'd get some help … Maybe they think you don't need support? (Is: 6)

While good leaders were seen as those who chose and equitably allocated opportunities that developed leadership skills beneath them, ineffective leaders hoarded opportunities or allocated them seemingly at a whim or according to political needs or favouritism, rather than

with an operational or developmental focus. Where leadership is developed to a large degree (as the results suggest) in the field, and on the job, through undertaking important policing roles, the allocation of opportunities and assignments is key to facilitating that development. Senior officers enjoyed a great deal of discretion in allocating resources and opportunities, and often appeared to deploy arbitrary reasoning in dispensing them, and officers often felt disempowered because no transparency existed in the way the decisions were dealt:

> I did consistently apply … but I was unable to access any opportunities … whereas people who were not there seemed to be able to just open doors and move … those people who were provided with opportunities … were clearly in a better position to compete for a promotion (In: 11).

Following on from the previous results on politics, one officer described how the "rewards" within the "Service" were allocated, with officers either "in" or "out" of the favoured loop:

> We have Plebeians and Patricians … there's a group of Patricians who feel that connections or people that they know or have marked out to be people that ought to go forward in the organisation, they can engineer circumstances where they get opportunities. Plebeians, which are the vast majority of the rest of us, probably aren't given those opportunities, and the ones that do come out of that are ones that have just simply been so outstanding that they've had those opportunities and they've gone forward … I doubt that at those higher levels that they're even aware of the inherent bias that they have (I: 3).

### 7.7.2 Unsupportive Leadership: Consequences

Unsupportive superiors proved a hindrance for officers wanting to progress their leadership, although some officers managed to leverage off this constrained learning environment, which ultimately fortified their leadership. It is interesting that, overall, officers' descriptions of

support from superiors was “mixed” with only half tending to the positive in valence. When it came to feedback, however, the tendency was heavily slanted to negative; in other words, officers generally characterised the direct, targeted feedback they received overwhelmingly in negative terms. The absence of feedback was also a problem, compounding the troubling picture of the role of feedback in the “Service”. Officers expressed frustration with little or no feedback from superiors, attributing this as a major factor that inhibited their leadership development.

Participants also were quite open in expressing their frustration and dismay at the perceived lack of support and feedback from superiors including perceptions of disloyalty and feeling undervalued, disengaged, shunned and ostracised. Notably, despite the negative flavour of the characterisation, several participants begrudgingly acknowledged unsupportive leadership could be partially attributed to bosses being overworked and time poor. “I think too that everyone’s so busy in their day-to-day job” (Is: 6).

## 7.8 Relationships with Significant Other People

Peer groups, subordinates and family and friend networks beyond the “Service” intuitively seem likely zones where significant support may emerge, and the data generally indicated this to be the case. However, in terms of leadership development per se, officers tended to focus on the role of superiors rather than lateral support. A mere handful of participants choose to discuss family support and feedback in terms of career development, for example, with the majority placing family and friends in a separate sphere. The notion of the “insider” – the sense that the culture of the “Service” cannot be understood by those outside it – may have been behind this reluctance (Crank, 2014). The importance of relationships with superiors has been previously discussed. Therefore, in the ensuing analysis, we will focus on peer

relationships within the “Service”, relationships with subordinates, and finally family and friend relationships outside the “Service”.

### 7.8.1 Relationships with Peers (Mateship)

Of the three potential zones of support and feedback (other than superiors), horizontal relationships within the force clearly predominated in the participants’ discourse. They undoubtedly relied heavily on an established and reliable network of peers and colleagues for support and feedback during their careers. The *colleague* is seen in the literature, and emerged in this research, as someone who more or less reliably “had their back” (Schafer, 2010b). During times of crises, officers referred to “mates”. Mates were not there simply for affirmation. When officers were asked to elaborate on the feedback peers provided, responses were divided equally between positively and negatively valanced responses. Some participants spoke glowingly regarding positive feedback obtained from colleagues. Feedback differed not just in terms of its usability, but also in terms of its availability. Officers referred to preferring feedback from “like” peers: “I think everyone just relates better to certain people and people stick to their own networks all of the time” (Is: 6). A minority chose to deliberately extend their peer networks and venture into new sources of information, exposing themselves to diverse feedback.

> I’ve got my own network of friends who are peers ... who would always reach out to you and give you support … I think it’s really important to cultivate more, so I would search out in the workplace people who I think I could seek advice from or relate to or have as, not as informant, but tell you what’s going on the grassroots so you’d know what you need to improve on or how the decisions … so I might also develop my own network wherever I go (Is: 6).

While unsupportive peers have been found to adversely impact attempts by police officers to improve their leadership effectiveness (see Schafer, 2010a), this was not a common theme in discourse. Instead, there was some cynicism about the quality of feedback received laterally.

> Other inspectors agree with the decisions that you make … especially if it doesn't affect them … because a lot of people are very open to decisions that are being made, as long as it's not impacting on their own patch (I: 6).

These officers also recognised cultural constraints on "honest" feedback that ameliorated the value of peer feedback, particularly if the feedback was positive.

> If someone does the right job a lot of people [peers] find it a difficult thing to actually acknowledge that and say 'You've done a great job'. Whether they see that as a sign of weakness? (I: 12)

There was also the use of "feedback" as a form of "blokey" humour. An inspector described the mocking feedback received from a colleague regarding their uncanny knack of attracting difficult and demanding crises and disasters to manage.

> 'Oh God, you're just a magnet for all of these things'. It was more of a joke and I didn't know if that's how people deal with it. But it wasn't 'oh geez that was horrible, are you okay; what can I do to help you? Do you want me to do a couple of your shifts, so you can recover?' It was never any of that. It was always 'Oh God, why does everything happen to you?' (I: 13)

A darker side of "feedback" was the use of lateral gossip or rumours to damage officers' careers, a form of "policing" of those who were seen as advancing too quickly up the ranks. A recently promoted officer, for example, described one particularly unpleasant situation:

> One [inspector] perpetuated a rumour that I was sleeping with [a subordinate] … These rumours had a negative impact on my family and the family of the other officer concerned. So that was hard to deal with and particularly because your professional reputation gets tarnished … It basically came down to professional jealousy. Because I had been selected for [certain position] this person had missed out, so he was doing everything he could to try to sabotage my chances. You can understand it from the people down below because they don't know you but someone that you have a professional work, at a peer level, it was very disappointing (Is: 2).

### 7.8.2 Relationships with Subordinates

The discourse in relation to feedback and support offered by subordinates mirrored that of peer feedback and discourse to a large degree. However, here the insight offered was relatively abbreviated, which made establishing links with developing leadership somewhat blurred. Officers instead often provided generalisations such as "great" or "fine" with little elaboration. Trust was again raised as a pivotal issue with participants emphasising its importance in establishing and maintaining positive bonds with subordinates. Trust was built with time. The discourse here was relatively more positive, as if the officers felt "safer" with those who were "safely" beneath them in terms of rank.

There was also a greater emphasis here on support, rather than feedback, as if those beneath them were less likely to provide valuable or usable insight, at least in part as a result of cynicism about the quality of feedback. Officers appeared content in the knowledge that having supportive relationships with subordinates meant their leadership was not lacking. Subordinates had their own agenda in providing feedback, no doubt, one officer noted. Positive feedback, however, was also seen as part of a good quality leader-follower exchange:

> Generally, feedback is always pretty good from your subordinates once you make sure you look after their interests as well as what's organised, but the other thing too is … you're telling the staff why the decisions are being made *(I: 6).*

Or, as another officer (Is: 5) put it, "it depends on the individual. And it does depend on your leadership and how willing they are to come along the journey with you". Building a good relationship with subordinates meant establishing an environment in which frank feedback could be exchanged, particularly concerning participants' leadership shortcomings. This, some officers saw, was part of the job of the "good" leader:

> I think the big thing that broke down the ice … one-on-one conversations, getting to know them, getting to know what drove them, what their career aspirations were … Take that time and getting around talking to them. Taking five minutes a day and doing that helps you achieve a lot (Is: 4).

### 7.8.3 Relationships with Family and Friends

The critical need for police officers to have family support has been referred to within scholarly works (Kakabadse & Dainty, 1988). Ambitious senior officers attempting to navigate the career ladder found family support critical in effectively coping with pressures and demands of the role (Kakabadse & Dainty, 1988). However, the sample interviewed showed relative reluctance to raise the issue of family support, much less feedback, in describing their leadership development. Only a fifth of respondents referred to family support, even in moments of crisis when their leadership was challenged or tested—despite prompting. When family and friend support arose, however, the tone of the comments was overwhelmingly positive. For example, an officer highlighted how being ambitious necessitated taking every available opportunity to access development and promotion. Taking opportunities meant accepting multiple transfers to various locations throughout the

state—with the family accompanying them. "There are many reasons why people won't move somewhere … It's easy enough to say … I've got a family, I've got kids, I've got school, sick dog, sick parents but I've always said yes" (Is: 5). In contrast two female participants explained how their development as leaders was constrained when attempting to balance family responsibilities and career advancement. One officer decided to prioritise family needs first before pursuing personal career ambitions: "You don't try to do anything in your career because of that" (Is: 6).

As leaders, these officers often provided lip service to "work-life balance" to their subordinates, but practised something very different themselves in order to succeed:

> I always tell my staff, at the end of the day, the only people who will be left when all things go bad is your family. I always say that, but when saying that, my own personal thing was I – this is a little bit hard for me, my relationship with my wife was never one where I would go home and unload on stuff (I: 9).

## 7.9 Organisational Characteristics – Post Fitzgerald Era

Participants had on average 30 years' service, which meant the time of joining the QPS would have roughly coincided with the watershed Fitzgerald Inquiry (1989) which led to sweeping organisational reforms. Participants also had recent exposure to arguably the most significant reform agenda in the QPS since the Fitzgerald Inquiry, arising from the internally driven QPS (2013) and the Keelty Review (2013). It was clear when talking about organisational characteristics and their role in leadership development that the QPS reforms and the Keelty Review were still fresh in officers' minds. Participants referred repeatedly to the impact reform measures had on their leadership including the nature of support and feedback received at an organisational level throughout this turbulent period of reform. The reforms had provided a backdrop for significant advancement to some of the officers

interviewed. In addition, reforms linked to the QPS reforms (2013) and Keelty Review (2013) were still ongoing, and new tranches of reform related to operational efficiencies were ongoing. For instance, some respondents highlighted recent reforms, which involved removing nearly a quarter of all commissioned officers through voluntary redundancies, translated to feeling over-burdened by having to do more with less support.

Participants generally reported being poorly supported through these macro-organisational change "revolutions". This finding is not unique to the current context. For instance, reforms aimed at greater efficiency and accountability introduced in the UK police were found to negatively impact the extent of support sergeants could supply police constables (Butterfield, Edwards, & Woodall, 2005). The impact could be felt in morale. For instance, a senior executive level officer voiced despair at attempting to fill critical staff vacancies; his efforts seemingly swamped by bureaucratic red tape dictated by the human resources (HR) department.

In the following section, the discussion turns to HR processes, including welfare support, change management, performance management and training and mentoring. The discussion will then detail findings in relation to characteristics of organisation culture as they impact on leadership development.

## 7.10 Views on Human Resources in Policing: The Formal Processes

Participants' role in effectively leading and managing subordinates is pivotal to their role as senior leaders. Policies and procedures associated with managing staff in the QPS are enshrined in human resource management (HRM) manuals requiring senior officers to interpret and apply. Overall, the analysis showed officers felt inherent structural impediments within the organisation including HR policy, and procedures impeded their ability to apply leadership theory in practice.

> The organisation doesn't allow you to practise what you learn in theory … you're not encouraged … you've given me the tools but you [the organisation] won't let me use them ... the organisation is hierarchical; it's full of policy procedure etc. You can only … go so far within those parameters … You must follow those parameters. Leading within the context and the boundaries you have within the organisation … You've got to be able to lead but you still must have those boundaries (In: 8).

Over a third of participants believed organisational systems and processes were inadequate or inefficient. Officers blamed bureaucratic or outdated HR systems or unnecessary bureaucratic red tape for impeding their progress as leaders. In the face of what they saw as obstructionism, these officers were not passive, admitting creatively circumventing systems to avoid red tape. "There are three layers of people driving you mad up top", one officer (Is: 3) claimed, admitting to using external community assistance to shield him from reporting requirements. Their overall sense of "mission", rightly or wrongly, saw them justify these shortcuts:

> There are structures and processes in place, but they're so inefficient. If you relied on HR processes to deal with a really difficult situation, it will take forever … the processes … are very, very, weak. I don't know if that's something that the QPS can control either … You really need to try to resolve it yourself (I: 1).

### 7.10.1 Well-Being Support

One key aspect of human resource management in a high-stress and often dangerous world of policing is access to high well-being support. Participants appreciated certain aspects of the support services, particularly when focused on particular services or individual officers, but were generally critical of the level of care provided at an organisational level.

> I really don't think the "Service" has a good concept around sort of care, if that makes sense. I don't know what word to use there *(I: 9).*

> I think in terms of support at the time it's poor, and post-incident it's poor as well ... if you would look at it from outside you think 'wow that's a great system' but I don't think it works (I: 13).

An officer described the provision well-being assistance provided by human service officers and police chaplains as woefully inadequate and superficial. More seriously, the participant asserted that accessing these services was compromised by breaches in confidentiality. As senior officers, this cohort may well have been seen by the QPS as hierarchy, and by rank separate from both the uniform and working conditions of the rank and file. Different, and in some senses less sensitive, standards might well apply. These were officers who could not afford to be perceived as weak, and simply accessing support may have been seen as loaded with risk.

There were exceptions to this general negative cast over the provision of well-being. For instance, an officer recalled a testing period in his leadership when heading up team of detectives investigating high profile and politically sensitive crimes. According to the officer, extreme workloads and mounting pressure to solve crimes resulted in some investigators suffering psychological issues. The officer explained good support was forthcoming from the organisation's human services officer (HSO) which helped subordinates deal with their issues. "In terms of the psych issues that the people had, I did get good support from our HSO [human services officer]. So, I suppose they do provide a valuable service" (I: 4). Even this "positive" tone was couched in caution, speaking volumes as to the ambivalence officers felt towards support at their senior level.

### 7.10.2 Ineffective Change Management Processes

In terms of organisational change, as previously highlighted, the Fitzgerald Inquiry was a watershed reform process in QPS history. As emphasised earlier, changes associated with the internal review by the QPS (2013) and Keelty Review (2013) arguably closely rivalled the Fitzgerald Inquiry in terms of large-scale organisational reform, which officers not surprisingly made constant references to. The QPS and Keelty reforms resulted in new operational roles being created, and others eliminated in wholesale changes that opened new and blocked old opportunities for advancement. Because of the nature of policing in Australia, these changes were often initiated at a state government level and were thus triggered by the election of new governments with new platforms for reform. Officers described processes of the government's grand plans being translated into action at the QPS level through the convoluted structure of rules, controls and political networks within the "Service", with power brokers within the "Service" attempting to retain power bases despite efforts at control from the (external) forces such as the police minister. Between the internal and the external processes, participants described individual officers as being "chewed up" by the system, rather than being brought along for reform:

> I think organisationally we've tried … I don't think they [senior executive] realised just the extent of the impact … even though clearly, they put processes in place and support mechanisms, but I don't think anyone really knew just what it was going to be like (I: 8).

Some officers clearly perceived human resource systems and processes as more aligned to protecting staff and arming rank and file officers to resist reform attempts from more senior officers. It was evident participants believed rank and file officers saw them as 'management cops'. It is plausible HR systems and processes were more aligned to support rank and file

officers, as this cohort are likely perceived as more vulnerable due to the power imbalance. Ironically, this meant that senior managers were perceived as having positional power that could still affect organisational outcomes despite a "bottom heavy" structure of the QPS: There were a number of relatively junior officers within a very small cadre of senior officers who ironically felt overwhelmed, as the following two quotes illustrate:

> The organisational structures or systems that are put in place to assist staff are used by the staff to control managers ... and staff are very, very good at that (In: 1).

> As an RDO [regional duty officer] … it's a difficult thing to manage…you're actually not in line control of any teams or any subordinates, and people don't necessarily engage with that position. It's hard to lead if people aren't engaging with you ... That was a period … I felt was an impediment to the leadership (In: 7).

### 7.10.3 Performance Management Systems

Participants explained the QPS possessed a formal performance development and appraisal assessment (PDA) system, also designed to assist officers in planning and documenting their professional and leadership development. However, this cohort of officers did not rate the application of this formal system highly, describing it as a "complete and utter joke" (I: 11). The PDA was based on a convoluted on-line form requiring three parties [participant, supervisors and over-viewing officer] to mandatory complete specific comments regarding the subject officers' performance. Officers roundly criticised the PDA process together with the focus on this cumbersome and rigid form. Participants also felt the process lacked credibility because the design and structure of the form was not conducive to honest feedback.

> The PDAs … don't hold a lot of creds because I think that people aren't that honest with them, and they're a difficult tool to use for honest feedback anyways … So, for me I think we could do better in that formal process (Is: 6).

For instance, the form allowed inclusion of broad non-specific comments that failed to make officers or their superiors properly account for their performance. Additionally, superiors were mandated to complete certain parts of the form but instead participants ended up making comments about their performance that made a mockery of the process (i.e. officers completing sections which were supposed to be undertaken by their commanding officer). "I've always done my own [comments]. I just typed my own comments and they just signed it so they weren't done properly" (I: 13). Apart from deficiencies in the design and administration of the PDA form, it is likely the ingrained culture of superiors not providing adequate feedback to subordinates (discussed later) may also dwarf the effectiveness of the process.

### 7.10.4 Lack of Transparency in Allocating Developmental Opportunities

Key concerns about formal training for senior officers related to issues of equity (with opportunities not properly advertised or equitably distributed according to need or ability), lack of sufficient quantity of training and lack of alignment between training and field/operational life. For instance, participants argued development opportunities were shrouded in mystery. These were treasured opportunities, but often allocated through closed merit selection processes involving a "captain's call" by senior executives. Officers argued developmental opportunities needed to be articulated more clearly and transparently. From the officer's perspective, the process had degenerated, at worst, to a "sort of a lucky dip approach …[of] snakes and ladders" (In: 11). Benchmarking and structure were needed. "It

should be benchmarked with milestones … and there should be combination of work performance, professional development and aptitude" (In: 11).

### 7.10.5 Poorly Designed Training Programs and Lack of Available Developmental Opportunities

An additional criticism of the current system was the lack of clear articulation between the content of training provided and the operational reality of policing. We noted earlier that in the officers' discourse, formal training stood out as achieving the purpose of developing leadership skills in only a minority of cases. A subtle criticism was raised by a minority of officers, who claimed formal training, while of merit, needed to be similarly integrated and applicable to the organisational structures of the QPS—not just the theoretical world of police work:

> Any sort of training and leadership or development needs to be accompanied with liberal amounts of reality … you can get the best leadership training in the world – it's whether or not the environment or the workplace is able to or ready to absorb … I think that's where the barriers are (In: 9).

Then there was the question of sufficiency and focus of training. Clearly, "supply" of training was constrained so that "demand" was high, and complaints about lack of opportunity in general were also common. Participants raised the issue of targeting of training by topic. Commanding stressful and unusual incidents is by nature one of the more challenging elements of policing and officers spoke earnestly of wishing they had had more training support that would have enabled them to cope. The degree to which the growing and complex demands of policing leaned increasingly on the leadership of senior officers, with greater expectations of accountability, was not matched by the provision of focused, specific and sufficiently advanced training.

Distinct to the availability of training, access to formal and structured mentoring was also an issue officers raised. The various benefits that accrue from mentoring in policing have been espoused in practitioner orientated articles (Chaney, 2008; Uhl, 2010) and within scholarly writings (Butterfield et al., 2005; Densten, 2003; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009). While officers had reaped the benefits of access to informal mentors often "recruited" through relationships, they also expressed the absence of a formal assigned mentor, particularly for difficult new assignments. As an example, an officer believed being assigned a mentor would have smoothed their transition from a corporate headquarters role to a busy operational commander's position. Another officer described feeling stressed and pressured when subjected to an internal investigation, which took years to resolve. The participant felt that being assigned a mentor for well-being support and guidance during this protracted investigation would have greatly assisted their ability to cope and continue to develop professionally.

> Well, there we get back to … mentoring relationships you have over the years. Really, there's not a lot of support at all in those circumstances, because whilst initially there may be some, these things go forever and ever and ever (I: 9).

## 7.11 Effects of Organisational Culture on Leadership Development

The organisational culture of policing has been well discussed in the literature. The following sections outline where the participant discourses touched on the relationship between leadership development and organisational culture. Not surprisingly, the account included the positive (loyalty, solidarity, sense of mission) and the negative (risk averse, arrogant, masculinised and politicised). Overall, culture was mentioned in negative terms, being seen as a constricting, restraining force in terms of facilitating development, and indeed in responding to the challenges faced by officers in the field.

The culture of loyalty is usually cast as a positive trait, and officers did refer to the camaraderie and solidarity within the organisation as one of the positives of the job. For example, an officer described how service-wide reforms presented an almost universal challenge to the "Service", but sense of solidarity made the challenge easier to face. "… Everyone was in the same boat" (I: 8). Conversely, this sense of "team" sometimes worked against officers' development. Officers described rejecting developmental opportunities for fear superiors may likely perceive their ambition as disloyal. The culture expected officers to demonstrate loyalty, which the officers described as a relatively delicate construct. Torn between opportunity and loyalty, officers found themselves often choosing the latter. "I also loved doing the job and you have to show some loyalty to the person [i.e. superiors]" (In: 10). Sometimes this "loyalty" was not obtained by choice. Participants described attempts to thwart developmental secondments by superiors, with some commanding officers threatening reprisals if they didn't remain. Officers furthermore did not remain "loyal" without experiencing some dissonance; they expressed feeling frustrated when bosses inferred their actions were selfish and disloyal.

Participants made constant and overwhelmingly negative references to the persuasive political culture in policing that affected their development as leaders. In Section 7.7 the discussion highlighted the degree to which individual officers engaged in strategic and political actions to achieve leadership or power ends. Officers did not describe the QPS in terms of a single "flavour" of politics, but rather an amalgam of factions, "cliques", and individual agendas playing out in a relatively small, closed system. The existence of factions or cliques in police organisations have been highlighted in the literature (Crank, 2014; Hafner, 2003). Politics attached itself to both positive and negative relationships. For example, one officer spoke of the role of politics in moderating how mentoring was applied: "The QPS runs on informal mentoring ... So, that's probably the most powerful [form of

support], but then I can see that could be [also] the most destructive … [I mean] talk about factions and things like that" (In: 9). As noted in Section 7.7, powerful and politically aligned people placed arbitrary labels on officers concerning their "promote-ability" and spread gossip with a strategic aim.

> There's a level of, probably, viciousness, I suppose, where people will say poor things about other members of the 'Service', and I suppose at certain levels, there are powerful people who will restrict your opportunities to develop (I: 3).

The highly gendered nature, and macho culture of policing (Crank, 2014) have been alluded to earlier. The impact of this aspect of culture cannot be underestimated. Participants reported altering their behaviour to suit the expectations of the culture around them, crafting their professional image to suit the dominant ideal of policing. For example, they chose not to reveal their developmental deficiencies to superiors for fear of being labelled weak or inadequate:

> What we have in the "Service" is probably what I'd call a very bruising culture … I'm not confident enough within our culture … to go to a leader and talk about how I ought to deal with something – that they wouldn't put that into a tick against [me] saying – that's a weakness (I: 3).

The issue of the masculine dominant culture was not surprisingly played out differently when it came to women officers. Three of the officers in our sample—roughly representative of the proportion at this senior level—were female, but the male officers also frequently referred to the gender divide and how gender and politics interacted in the senior levels of the "Service".

The female officers reported gender being "used" inappropriately ("they try to throw knives at me" (Is: 2)), as a tool of politics and influence. These participants described being the

subject of derogatory comments from superiors, and attribution of success to gender from those both above and around them in terms of rank.

> It's about this constant barrage of comments about you're only getting promoted because you're female … it's a bit tiring after a while … eventually it will affect people … because if it happens often enough, you actually will start to believe that (Is: 6).

Self-questioning was not surprisingly one result. One officer bemoaned the lack of maturity in the organisation regarding gender issues, which necessitated female support networks to address gender bias.

> You'd like the organisation to get to a level of maturity that we don't have to have a woman's conference and woman's networks and that it becomes commissioned officers conference … that it doesn't matter whether I'm black, white, Chinese, female or whatever. It just becomes a forum for professional development instead of women development (Is: 2).

The male officers hedged their responses in relation to gender, aware of their majority but also showing apparent caution in dealing with the issue. One male officer felt hemmed in and intimidated by gender "politics", describing being forced to apologise while asserting vehemently that he acted professionally and ethically at all times.

> This person … was part of a women's group of managers, she bypassed me … and went straight to an executive female officer … and I was given direction to apologise. I found that very insulting … all the managers I know have had similar examples … it's something I learned very early … there is a lot of politics (I: 1).

Closely related to the “macho” culture of policing was the notion of arrogance. Arrogance emerged in the literature as a path to shortcutting systems: certain members of the hierarchy regarded themselves as almost beyond the rulebook or at least beyond reproach. However, more subtle, more pervasive forms of arrogance were also touched on in officers’ accounts. One officer articulated organisational arrogance in terms of what police executives see as important compared to the community sense of priorities. This officer explained the difference in terms of grandiosity not founded in ordinary lay reality:

> We do think we are the best in the world …We actually think people on the street care who is going to get the next deputy commissioner position and they care about the restructure. They don’t. They just want to make sure that their son doesn’t get belted when he has a drink, their daughter doesn’t get raped when she goes to a nightclub … our arrogance is what holds us back … It really gets to me (Is: 3).

An example of “holding” the organisation “back” was laid out by one officer who spoke of the attitude towards an exchange program with other police services offered by the QPS:

> I think we’re so closed-minded in this organisation … Years ago we used to have an exchange program … The exposure that you get outside of our culture … is just an invaluable experience (Is: 2).

Officers instead promoted positive leadership outcomes derived from exchange programs including networking opportunities with other senior managers and exchanging ideas and practices about leadership and management. Participants also added that exchange programs afforded them the valuable opportunity to witness firsthand how other organisations dealt with workplace issues and reform.

Police organisations are frequently characterised as having a strong cultural resistance to change (Fleming & O'Reilly, 2007; Schafer, 2010a; Workman-Stark, 2017). This inherent conservatism in policing emerged frequently in the analysis when it came to introducing innovation to leadership development. Change is almost inevitable in Australian policing where governments face elections on a three - or four-year cycle that determines key aspects of police service operations, from the nature of laws that officers are required to police, to the size of the overall staffing and budget. Thus police "change" is often restricted to the reactive rather than proactive and is conducted in the shadow of significant (elected and bureaucratic) political influence. Officers referred, in this context, to an active movement to resist change, or at least mitigate the (perceived "negative") impact of state-government influenced reforms. This resistance was couched in terms of protecting the service provided to the public. Officers expressed frustration, and voiced calls for the hierarchy within and beyond the QPS to be more forthright about the reasons for reforms. As discussed earlier, ongoing reform within their organisation appeared a constant and at times unwelcome companion. While scholarly discourses appear to paint the Fitzgerald Inquiry as the epitome of extreme reform movements, most officers' comments echoed the negative impact of more recent reform measures, highlighted previously, that being the QPS (2013) and Keelty Review (Keelty, 2013). These reforms suddenly constricted access to leadership development opportunities.

> There was so much change, so quickly. Almost too much for anyone, no matter how good they are, to actually digest it and deal with it … a lot of people are a little bit numb to change … it's become so constant … 'here we go again' … and it was such a big unwieldy beast that was changing and morphing every day. It was change management on the fly (I: 8).

Participants also spoke of a sudden reduction in developmental opportunities offered by senior executives during this tumultuous period of change. Reduced opportunities were, in part, attributed to promotions at senior levels being frozen for two years due to the removal of approximately 25 percent of leadership positions via voluntary redundancies. This removed avenues not only for promotion but also dampened officers' motivation for development:

> A whole lot of staff left, and we were left with what we got. The way we did business on Friday was terribly different to what we had to do on Monday because we had no fucking staff. All the heads were gone; all of the inspectors were gone (Is: 5).

Put in charge of implementing the reforms, officers also faced recalcitrance in the lower ranks, and found themselves in the position of having to sell measures that they did not necessarily believe in.

What also emerged from the data was a paradox concerning how the organisation philosophically viewed risk taking, which contrasted markedly with how risk taking was applied in practice. Scholarly writings have also highlighted the tendency for police organisations to be risk averse (Beckley & Birkinshaw, 2009; Fleming & O'Reilly, 2007). Officers appeared frustrated by organisational rhetoric advocating "true leadership" by making "courageous" decisions. Such an approach was clearly part of the image of the "Service"; part of the macho, aggressive culture that was given (at least) strong lip service within the QPS. However, in practice, potentially contentious decisions were frowned upon, with officers subtly or directly encouraged to avoid "rocking the boat". According to officers, this risk-averse reality meant leadership decisions were focused on protecting the organisation's image at all costs.

> The QPS is full of this, you know, 'we will let you do what you have to, and our appetite for risk is far higher and no one will get killed over it as long as you do the

> right thing' – that's a lot of talk … Everyone is concerned about the image of the QPS (Is: 3).

So officers perceived a double standard: lip service to accepting risk as an unavoidable and acceptable part of policing, coupled with a high degree of sensitivity to the perceptions of not just the public, but the "publics" within the QPS.

> When you think outside of the box you get a little bit criticised for being a bit out there which is a shame … I've tried with streamlining and red tape, nonsense things that we do, and we get: 'Oh no, we've always done it this way and we'll just keep doing it because it's always worked. Why fix something that's not broken?' Well, why not? Why not change what we're doing? (In: 13)

Officers expressed their frustration that when suggestions aimed at improving systems and processes were put forward, they were given an "if it's not broke then why fix it?" response. One officer asserted the conflict between innovation and risk averseness bred a cohort of mediocre leaders – reflected in selection processes that rewarded officers who avoided risks and were content to "tow the party line". "This recent promotion system speaks on that in itself … they're obviously profiling people to fit within a certain range … what they're prepared to accept … accepting the best thing as mediocre leadership because it's a percentage game" (I: 9).

## 7.12 Limitations

All invited participants agreed to be interviewed, therefore the 100% response rate represents one of the obvious strengths of this study. However, as noted previously in the introductory chapter (1) and methodology chapter (4), it is acknowledged that this study is not causal research. To be precise, this study captured perception-based data from commissioned

officers, who comprised a select cadre of “winners” that had successfully scaled the upper rungs of a competitive promotional system. Therefore, this likely restricted the extent to which key participants could offer insight into the “independent” characteristics of leadership development in the QPS. In addition, this research was confined to the lived job experiences of commissioned officers in the QPS. It is recognised that leadership development is a complex process and other developmental experiences, external to policing, may have ultimately impacted upon their development as police leaders. Critical factors impacting on leadership development, particularly societal or institutional factors, may be invisible to police leaders.

## 7.13 Conclusion

The nature of this study offers an insight into how senior police leaders perceived optimal developmental methods (RQ1). However, the data derived from officers’ interviews responds more directly to research questions two (RQ2) and three (RQ3).

To recap, RQ2 sought to identify what factors (other than methods) facilitated or constrained how senior police leaders developed their leadership. Three broad learning approaches responsible for enhancing the leadership development of participants (and aligned with the literature) emerged: job assignments/placements, supportive relationships, and formal/structured training. Participants’ responses amplified the importance of acquiring leadership learning on-the-job and through work-based relationships, in contrast to structured or formal means. The importance of establishing effective relationships with superiors as a means of growing their development as leaders was not lost on participants, so much so that it became a recurring theme.

As previously mentioned, the evidence highlighted the degree to which police leaders work within a challenging, complex, and politically charged context, requiring officers to possess

various characteristics to operate effectively. The key attributes of senior officers subsequently proved a defining factor in facilitating their development as leaders. Participants were not merely survivors; they thrived within the distinctive policing context by possessing a combination of individual characteristics. These key characteristics effectively defined them as "winners", which enabled them to athletically scale the promotional totem pole. Participants' accounts were also peppered with references to key characteristics possessed by their superiors, which either facilitated (supportive) or constrained (unsupportive) their development. Several organisational characteristics also impacted upon participants' development as leaders including various police HR resources, which at times promoted, but mainly shackled, their development. Organisational culture appeared to play a largely negative role: participants' references to the organisational culture tended to be cast in terms of how it impeded their progression as leaders

The third research question (RQ3) aimed to describe the extent to which leadership development of senior police was influenced by aspects of challenge, feedback and support. As alluded to previously, the two-part leadership development model espoused by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) guided this research. To briefly recap, the model theorises that leadership development involves a process involving context coupled with diverse developmental experiences moulded by challenge, feedback and support. In summary, the data analysed from this study broadly supports this model.

Officers described the various contextual factors which facilitated and hindered their development as leaders. By recalling experiences which advanced their leadership, officers also detailed leadership challenges involved in policing, the existence of feedback and access to support, which impacted their development. As previously noted, while "feedback" and "support" (owing to the distinction made within the scholarly literature) were proposed

separately, during questioning of participants, responses from officers revealed the two were closely interwoven.

The critical need for leadership development to be sufficiently challenging presented as a key theme in officers' accounts. As discussed earlier, descriptions of challenging on-the-job experiences invariably involved officers stepping up and taking charge, accompanied by elevated stress levels. Officers reported their leadership being challenged (and either stretched or hampered), by stressors described in positive (eustress) and negative (distress and catastrophic stress) tones. When leadership development proved sufficiently challenging, but not of an amplitude that impeded their eventual mastery of the challenge, officers experienced *eustress* that culminated in positive learning outcomes. Contrastingly, when distress or, at extreme levels, catastrophic stress was encountered, officers' development was hindered, to the point where officers became non-functional and their health compromised. Long-term effects of both pathways were observed.

The need for adequate support (and feedback) was highlighted as a critical component that underpinned officers' development. As alluded to previously, establishing good relationships with superiors, comprising positive support and feedback, emerged as a defining indicator of positive leadership developmental outcomes. Apart from scant references to support (and feedback) from family, peers, subordinates and organisational characteristics (or lack thereof), participants' discourse was squarely centred on their superiors. In stark contrast, unsupportive superiors who provided negative feedback proved to have deleterious effects on officers' development. The results amplified the pivotal importance superiors played in facilitating subordinates' development as leaders, through the essential elements of feedback, challenge and support.

In summary, several key findings concerning the leadership development of commissioned officers can be drawn from this study, extending the current literature when applied to particular occupations. It is now time to turn our attention to the concluding chapter (Chapter 8) of this thesis, where the discussion will present the limitations associated with this research, together with a description of how the police context affects the development of its senior leaders. Several key findings will then be detailed concerning each of the research questions, together with a description of the implications of this research. Finally, the thesis will conclude by presenting several key recommendations arising from the research, together with the several theoretical implications and suggestions for future research.

# Chapter 8. General Summary and Discussion

## 8.1 Overview

This thesis explored how an elite cadre of commissioned officers at a large Australian state police agency developed their leadership. The study offers the first empirical insight of its type into Australian policing and builds on the corpus of international studies on leadership development in a police context. The introductory chapter provided the background to the thesis and described the aims and objectives. Chapters 2 and 3 presented the literature review on leadership and leadership development within the corporate sector, as well as within the unusual context of policing. Chapter 4 outlined the methodology, comprising a mixed methods approach involving three studies, which were presented in Chapters 5 to 7. The first study identified the Australian context of leadership development, examining the various state and federal police jurisdictions, together with the Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM). Chapter 6 presented the findings from a survey of commissioned officers and their preferred leadership development methods, and the high response rate made it highly representative of their views. The analysis examined factors that officers perceived facilitated or hindered their development, together with aspects of challenge, feedback and support associated with their leadership development. Chapter 7 drilled down for a more in-depth understanding of senior officers' views, through interviews with 20 serving commissioned officers selected by stratified random sampling, to be representative of the various levels of leadership. The qualitative analysis enabled an exposition of their lived work experiences involving various aspects of leadership development, including associated challenges and factors that facilitated and inhibited their advancement, together with key elements of support and feedback. By drawing upon data derived from the three studies, the following discussion presents overall conclusions for each research question. This chapter will conclude by listing key recommendations and suggestions for future research.

## 8.2 Strengths and Limitations

Before presenting a summary and discussion of key findings, it is worth noting some strengths and limitations associated with this thesis. As outlined previously, one of the strengths associated with this research involved the strong relationship the researcher had established with the QPCOUE, which allowed a comprehensive interrogation of the data. Not only did this benefit the quality of the research, it also offered unparalleled access to the cloistered world of senior police in Queensland. High participation rates coupled with ready access to police jurisdictions can be attributed to the strong level of support provided by the QPCOUE. However, the research contained several inherent limitations.

The study was undertaken in a police service that was structured in such a way as to constrict the number of senior leaders. This limits the generalisability of the findings: this was an elite small group, and police services with "flatter" structures, may offer different dynamics and results. Additionally, as previously highlighted, the commissioned officers at the focus of this research were already "winners" in terms of successfully scaling a difficult organisational ladder. Subsequently, the research data does not include insights from officers who attempted to make use of leadership opportunities afforded to them and failed. The design of the thesis does not thus fully interrogate the success or otherwise of development methods. The "voice" of those who failed is absent and may be the key to understanding the processes. Additionally, in order to gain a more nuanced view of officers' leadership requirements, perceptions gleaned from subordinates and senior officers would have increased the reliability and validity of findings.

To build on the previous comment about the absence of those who failed to reach the upper echelons of the Service, research did not attempt to measure the relative efficacy of developmental methods employed for commissioned officers. This is not causal research. Instead, the research relied upon the *perceptions* of key informants and commissioned

officers regarding what methods worked in terms of being beneficial to their development. Their views may be coloured by the fact that, to a greater or lesser extent, they are “winners”. Even when it comes to the key stakeholders offering insight into the ‘objective’ characteristics of leadership development practices in their jurisdiction, the insights are limited to the respondents’ subjectivity.

As noted earlier, research methodology associated with designing the survey questionnaire (Study 2) was restricted in scope due to constraints imposed by the host organisation (i.e. QPCOUE). The advantage of using the existing process meant participants were highly motivated to complete the EB survey, culminating in an unusually high response rate and a high degree of representativeness in the sample. However, access to a dedicated survey would have allowed the researcher to explore in richer detail aspects of leadership development, which was not possible in this research.

Finally, it is worth underlining that the data derived from this research chiefly involved perceptions of commissioned officers from just one major police jurisdiction. A single study of stakeholders from other jurisdictions expanded the scope of the study. Within the limits of the Queensland context, data collection was triangulated by using mixed methods incorporating interviews, surveys and document analysis. In addition, views presented by content matter experts hopefully reflected the jurisdiction’s viewpoint rather than their own individual perceptive. Future studies in leadership need to include more verifiable and realistic measures of leadership development and effectiveness. Leadership is a complex target for research, and policing is a complex context. Nevertheless, the existence of detailed, generally highly accurate longitudinal data on police effectiveness (i.e. for example, outcomes related to crime detection) does offer hope that objective measures of leadership effectiveness are available. The difficulties associated with accessing, interpreting and

linking tangible outcomes are acknowledged, particularly when miscellaneous factors are at play.

## 8.3 The Policing Context and how it relates to Leadership Development

Policing is an unusual context in which to discuss leadership. Police work has been popularly described as an "art" as opposed to a science (see Baker, 2008; J. Chan, Devery, & Doran, 2003; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Tong & Bowling, 2006) and a trade or craft as opposed to a profession (see Bumgarner, 2002; Cox, 2011). However, arguably policing falls between the two. In line with the definitional requirements of a profession, entrance to the higher echelons of the police is protected with significant hurdles, and officers, guilty of misbehaviour, can see one admonished, demoted or even expelled from the ranks. The other requirement of a true profession is structured and more or less arduous training, and here police services fall into a paradox highlighted in this thesis. The formal training given to officers, particularly at the upper ends of the Service, tends to be optional/elective and peripheral, rather than prescribed. Training is characteristically conducted in short sharp bursts, aligned with operational requirements and dispensed in a relatively *ad hoc* manner. Equally *ad hoc*, but significantly less "underdone", is the training senior officers receive on the job. Officers are thrown into significant, ill-controlled, unpredictable challenges, often with a considerable lack of training and resources, which would not be acceptable, for example, in the profession of medicine. However, ironically, it emerges from this study and others that it is the on-the-job challenges that ultimately define them as leaders. Nevertheless, it is hard to exactly measure the veracity of the claim (by the participants in this study for example) that the 'training' that emerges in 'doing' the work of policing, is successful. The officers who survive "training" of this sort are elevated to more senior roles (although not in a necessarily fair or systematic manner), not necessarily because the training

has “succeeded”, but because they have survived the “training”. The scholarly research available highlights the importance of police learning leadership through “on-the-job” experiences, (together with formal training and mentorship) (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009, 2010a), but the reality of “on-the-job” learning is that it is often non-systematic, informal, and difficult to replicate.

So while it has been argued these more strategic roles are part science and part art (see Baker, 2011; Caless & Tong, 2017), the findings suggest there is relatively little “science” (as in formal training) and a great deal of art (“training” carried out in an applied manner, in the streets, in a context governed by the crime that officers are employed to control). A further paradox emerges in this regard at the senior level. On the one hand, these commissioned officers need to wear corporate hats and are subsequently seen as “management cops” by street-level police. However, their role regularly requires them to straddle this boundary by “operationalising” the strategic intent of the organisation through leading rank and file officers. If they have proven themselves in the field as officers capable of handling the ill-structured nature of fighting crime, they are elevated to the highly-structured, increasingly accountable and rules-based world of senior management. Once again, inevitably, they find themselves ill-prepared.

In the following sections, each of the three research questions will be addressed separately, with results from all three studies used to inform the response and discussion.

## 8.4 What Methods Best Facilitate how Senior Police Leaders Develop Their Leadership?

### 8.4.1 Commonly Applied Methods

The first study identified approaches taken by various state and federal jurisdictions and the Australian Institute of Police Management in developing commissioned officers, with data

gathered through review of archival materials and interviewing key personnel. This was largely a descriptive study. Each jurisdiction appeared to have adopted a unique and tailored approach to the professional and leadership development of commissioned officers, so to that degree no absolute 'best' or even 'uniformly-adopted' method emerged. Jurisdictional differences in development mirror the variations employed by each state/federal agency in administering its policing functions – each in an autonomous and parochial manner. However, there were commonalities between agencies in their approaches. Notably, each agency drew upon a combination of at least five or more learning methods to facilitate the development of commissioned officers with informal learning, using job assignments, *ad hoc* mentoring, informal networking and formal development, through structured training and tertiary education, as the most commonly applied. The use of multiple interventions accords with the literature that suggests leadership development is best achieved when a set of activities is planned, as opposed to a single intervention (Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010).

#### *8.4.1.1 Job Assignments*

Job assignments also emerged as a key "pick" in Study 2 (survey questionnaire), where officers were asked their preferred method of developing leadership. While job assignments were formally assigned to officers from a developmental perspective, they were administered in an *ad hoc* or informal basis. In Study 3 (semi-structured interviews), QPS commissioned officers gave an insight into *how* job assignments helped improve their skills, exposing them to challenges that were hard to articulate in the classroom and providing them with a canvas to practise and refine some of the theory learned in formal training. It was clear, however, that the majority of job assignments were proffered without particular regard for the officers' development, but more for operational reasons, or at least the assignments were not linked to an individual officer's development plan. This study suggested that three types of job

assignments accelerated an officer's leadership development: stepping up to new roles or responsibilities (arising from promotion); commanding major crises; and temporary job assignments (i.e. relieving duties and performing special projects). This research confirms the critical importance of these "doing" assignments, emphasised in policing by Neyroud (2010) and supported by empirical research drawn from corporate sector studies (see Day, Zaccaro, & Halpin, 2004; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988; Wilson & Van Velsor, 2011; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004; Zaccaro, Wood, & Herman, 2006). Although a paucity of empirically based research exists on developing police leaders, the handful of available studies attest that job assignments are a good leader development approach (see Jarvis, 2011; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009; Wedlick, 2012). The research found that job assignments external to the Service were also beneficial to officers' leadership, supported by the findings in the police related literature (see Gaston & King, 1995; Murray, 2000; Rowe, 2006). This research also confirmed the extant literature finding that a diverse array of job assignments broadened an officer's experience base and improved their leadership (Murray, 2000). Job assignments were an attractive method for senior officers due to inherent flexibility (Mastrofski, 2018). The strong preference that officers assign to job assignments is not surprising considering the craft-based nature of police work (see Rowe, Turner, & Pearson, 2016; Willis & Mastrofski, 2017), where officers essentially learn tools of the trade on-the-job.

#### *8.4.1.2 Informal (or Ad Hoc) Mentoring*

The evidence showed informal mentoring emerged as a popular pick to advance officers' leadership. Inzer and Crawford (2005) note that as opposed to the formal version, informal mentoring is usually longer term and involves the mentor and protégé establishing a work-based friendship predicated on mutual trust and respect. Jurisdictional experts (Study 1) acknowledged the ingrained practice of superiors informally mentoring subordinates as an

integral component of an officer's development. Accounts from QPS commissioned officers presented in interviews (Study 3) repeatedly reinforced the critical importance of enhancing their leadership through *ad hoc* mentoring underpinned by trusted relationships with superiors. The pivotal importance of informal mentoring is supported by research findings in the corporate sector which highlight developmental benefits derived including the provision of challenging assignments and enhancing the protégé's visibility and exposure (see Inzer & Crawford, 2005). Informal mentoring has been briefly discussed here as a developmental method per see, with later discussions (RQ2) viewing this unstructured form of mentoring through the lens of work-based relationships. The structured version of this method will be discussed later as a promising developmental method for senior officers.

#### *8.4.1.3 Formal Training and Development*

Despite this preference for job assignments, all three studies confirmed that formal (or structured) training and development played a prominent role in commissioned officers' development as leaders. The popularity of delivering (if not receiving) formal training was clearly evident with interviews with content matter experts (Study 1), where this method was found to be universally popular in police jurisdictions. This method was typically represented in various in-house training programs incorporating a face to face or classroom component. Leskiw and Singh (2007) contend that within corporate settings, traditional classroom training solutions remain relevant and appropriate in contemporary workplaces and play a role in effective leadership development. Commissioned officers (see Study 2) rated *self-directed* structured training as their second most preferred method of learning leadership. In Study 3, QPS commissioned officers also highlighted the importance of formal training with references to tertiary education (discussed later). However, the emphasis attached to formal learning by commissioned officers in Study 3 were insignificant compared with weight attached to informal learning (i.e. challenging job assignments and relationships), with

most participants citing this form of learning as being of the greatest benefit in their development. This finding accords with a systematic literature review on police leadership undertaken by Kodz and Campbell (2010) who concluded structured training remained relevant and applicable within police agencies. Also Herrington (2014) argued that formal face-to-face training was still an important method to supplement other forms of learning for senior police leaders.

For this discussion, tertiary training, typically housed within an independent, university structure, has been included under the broader heading of formal or structured forms of leadership development. However specific discussion on tertiary training (or university education) is warranted here due to its prominence in the data. For instance, when jurisdictional experts were interviewed (Study 1), various forms of tertiary training for commissioned officers proved a common component of organisations surveyed, with all jurisdictions supporting commissioned officers to undertake tertiary education.

In the second study (survey questionnaire), there appeared to be a distinction based on rank in how officers perceived tertiary education. For the higher ranks it was perceived more highly, while in Study 3 (semi-structured interviews), officers in general confirmed the value of tertiary education. Higher ranked officers were likely more mature, independent learners than their lower ranked counterparts, with the inherent flexibility of tertiary education seen as a fitting vehicle in which to pursue their individual learning needs.

Participants in Study 3, in particular, emphasised learning the theoretical principles of leadership as important, prior to (or while) applying it in the workplace. It is noteworthy that three-quarters of QPS commissioned officers possessed at least an undergraduate degree, suggesting the group are not neutral on the issue of tertiary studies. Traditional perceptions of police include being insular, anti-intellectual and lacking in education. The findings thus

certainly challenged traditional perceptions of police being uneducated and anti-intellectual (see Fleming, 2010; Vickers, 2000). In terms of the absolute value of higher education, classical research undertaken by Krimmel and Lindenmuth (2001) in the US found police chiefs were more likely to be rated as poor leaders if they were not at least college educated.

#### *8.4.1.4 Networking*

Networking, usually within informal settings, also emerged as a key method of learning leadership. This result accords with corporate sector studies highlighting informal networking as a legitimate means of promoting leadership capability (see Brass & Krackhardt, 1999; Day, 2001; McCallum & O'Connell, 2009). In addition, Brass and Krackhardt (1999) found that a key characteristic of a leader involves the ability to build effective networks through the process of relationship building. It is interesting to note that Study 1 (jurisdictional experts) revealed *formal* networking was not regularly adopted within Australian police agencies. However, *informal* networking with peers and superiors was omnipresent, with the finding aligning with scholarly research in public sector organisations (see Hartley & Hinksman, 2003; Jackson & Lapsley, 2003). When QPS commissioned officers were surveyed (Study 2), they rated networking as their third most preferred method, with Study 3 interviews confirming the value. Participants attending AIPM courses consistently rated the most valuable learning outcomes derived from completing formal training involved informal networking with peers from different jurisdictions. This evidence is supported by scholarly research that informal learning through peers and leaders are valuable ways to develop police leaders (Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010). Researchers have identified the ability of officers to network was a critical skill inherent in good police leaders (see Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Dobby, Anscombe, & Tuffin, 2004; Österlind & Haake, 2010) and also useful at promoting leadership skills in police (Schafer, 2010a). Whilst online platforms provide learners convenient access to professional development,

particularly for officers in remote areas and with family responsibilities, this research highlighted face to face informal interactions still provided senior police officers with valuable opportunities to network and subsequently enhance their leadership capabilities. The following discussion will explore alternative developmental interventions (i.e. action learning, formal mentoring and self-directed learning) which evidence showed were underutilised – but demonstrated considerable promise in advancing police leaders.

#### *8.4.1.5 Action Learning*

Action learning was identified in the research as a promising developmental method. Action learning is defined in ways that make it quite similar to the non-formal, experiential 'training' delivered in the police. For example, Jones-Evans defines it as "a means of development, intellectual, emotional or physical that requires its subjects, through responsible involvement in some real, complex and stressful problem" (Jones-Evans, Williams, & Deacon, 2000, p. 283). As highlighted earlier in the literature, action learning more formally is a project-based learning directed at important business problems (see Campbell, Dardis, & Campbell, 2003; Day & Haipin, 2001). Although no empirical evidence has linked action learning to enhanced leadership development outcomes in policing, police scholars have identified this method as having potential (see Adlam, 2000; Campbell & Kodz, 2011; Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Herrington, 2015; Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Macfarlane & Mould, 2002; Marquardt, 2003; Neyroud, 2010; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013) and it is clear from the findings that a variant of action learning is at play in police leadership development. The preference for action learning by superintendents over lower-ranked colleagues revealed in survey results (Study 2) may reflect the requirement for a customised learning agenda as opposed to a "one size fits all approach" mirrored in police agencies with generic promotional courses. It is also possible that respondents interpreted the term to mean a variant of "learning by doing". As Skipton and Lang (2010) attest, the advantage of action learning in developing leaders is that

it facilitates a tailored approach thereby allowing individuals to target the development of specific leadership capabilities. Because action learning is work based and akin to job assignments, this method could provide a more systematic way of providing officers with real work problems within a learning environment supportive of development.

#### *8.4.1.6 Formal Mentoring*

Most jurisdictional experts (Study 1) recognised benefits derived from informal mentoring and lauded the potential positive outcomes that could accrue from a system of formal mentoring. This may well reflect the 'expert' view, or the politically correct view. However, most experts admitted their jurisdiction failed to offer such a formal process for their commissioned officers. This method appears counterintuitive considering this research revealed a significant proportion of leadership learning was acquired through work-based relationships (largely with superiors). The literature also notes tentative evidence exists linking mentoring to positive leadership development outcomes in policing (see Baker, 2011; Murphy, 2006; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008, 2009, 2010a; Wedlick, 2012), with the lack of suitable mentoring perceived to be a significant barrier to progression (Murphy, 2005). Applying systematic approaches to mentoring within police agencies would align with recommendations by Herrington (2017) as a means of better facilitating the majority of learning acquired through informal means (i.e. work-based learning and relationships).

#### *8.4.1.7 Self-directed learning*

Self-directed learning essentially involves a process where individual learners assume responsibility for and manage their individual learning (Towle & Cottrell, 1996). Therefore, self-directed learning is not a specific method *per se*, but lends itself to a diverse array of learning methods evidenced by the results in Study 2 (survey questionnaire) where self-

directed learning clustered with tertiary based learning as one factor (see Study 2). As highlighted previously, interviews with jurisdictional experts (Study 1) revealed most police agencies within Australia, including the QPS, adopted a self-directed learning philosophy when developing commissioned officers. The value of self-directed learning, as highlighted by officers in Study 2, was that it empowered officers to control and resource their own training and tailor it to their needs. This flexibility responded to the limitations officers identified in the more formal, structured training they received.

Some police research has advocated the potential of applying learner-controlled andragogy in police education (see Birzer, 1999, 2003; S. Chan, 2010). No evidence exists to support the utility of self-directed learning in developing police leaders, however within corporate settings its use has been supported by empirical research (Day & Zaccaro, 2004; Zaccaro & Banks, 2004; Zaccaro et al., 2006). Birzer (1999) argues the nature of police work requires officers to be highly skilled at problem solving, which should be mirrored in an officer's learning curriculum by being more problem orientated and student centred. Therefore, the findings support the contention that wherever possible, development approaches for commissioned officers adopt self-directed learning approaches.

The traditional "crime fighting" role of policing requires officers to implement problem solving strategies to address complex community based problems (McCoy, 2006). Proponents argue conventional military-style training adopted by police academies is at odds with the changing police role. Instead a more self-directed learning approach would more likely equip officers with requisite skills required in a problem orientated community policing role (see Birzer, 1999, 2003; Birzer & Tannehill, 2001). Therefore, officers' preference to self-directed learning is understandable, particularly at senior levels where officers are likely highly mature learners and more accustomed to charting their own career development. It

also accords with the general literature showing the value of action learning in terms of stress reduction by giving individuals greater control over their circumstances at work (see Panari, Guglielmi, Simbula, & Depolo, 2010; Spector, 2002).

In summary, the evidence revealed combining several different developmental methods proved to be the most popular approach to enhancing leadership in senior officers. This finding was particularly evident in interviews with jurisdictional experts (Study 1) which revealed five methods that were applied universally across agencies surveyed. This finding, accords with research by Kodz and Campbell (2010) and Neyroud (2010), who found integrating/combining a range of learning methods was more beneficial for developing police leaders. The research revealed five popular development methods that broadly align with the 70:20:10 learning model (see McCall et al., 1988), including: *structured training* (i.e. formal, "in-house" training and tertiary education); *work-based learning* (i.e. job assignments) and *relationship based development* (i.e. informal mentoring). In addition, action learning, formal mentoring and self-directed learning have also been included as promising developmental interventions that appear underutilised by police agencies as a means of enhancing leadership capability. Police organisations are regarded as relatively conservative workplaces (Rumens & Broomfield, 2012; Wall, 2007) and appear to have steadfastly clung to more "traditional" methods to enhance officer leadership, which represents conventional wisdom and mirrors a risk-adverse culture. The tradition can be described as "sink or swim" or "dive in the deep end" "action learning". Creating hybrids between learning on the job and taking advantage of formal leadership learning insights generated from other sectors would appear as one way to move forward. Importantly, police organisations still rely heavily on informal *ad hoc* ways to develop leaders, reflected in the deeply entrenched cultural belief that policing is still largely a craft-based occupation than a true profession. In a true profession, the first hurdles before one can "practise" the profession are formal and

removed from practice.  Based on this research, in policing the reverse is often the case.  It is now timely to turn our attention to addressing RQ2, presented in the following discussion.

## 8.5 RQ2: What Factors (Other Than Learning Methods) Facilitate or Constraint How Senior Police Leaders Develop Their Leadership?

Schafer (2009) has observed the paucity of empirical evidence to explain what hinders the development of good police leadership, and this study contributes to addressing that shortfall. Particularly in Study 3, the researcher were able to "zoom in" on the minds of senior officers still embedded in their jobs, and in many cases, still attempting to climb a very restricted leadership ladder. The interviews were highly representative of the population, due to careful sampling of the relatively small population, and were additionally confidential and in depth.

The results revealed a number of both positive and negative aspects of police training and organisational characteristics. The following discussion is also at times supplemented with the findings of Study 2 (survey questionnaire). While RQ1 took a narrow focus on leadership development methods, RQ2 adopted a wider view exploring broader elements or factors that facilitated or hindered officers' development. For instance, the ensuing discussion will explore the application of the 70:20:10 learning model, due to its prominence in the literature and relevance to the findings. This analysis will explore the importance of informal learning which emerged from this thesis and its application to the 70:20:10 learning model. While primarily focused on the individual learner, the model couches individual learning within a work-based context and reflects a fundamental shift in perceiving leadership: from "regarding it as an individual attribute to viewing it as an organisational commodity" (Flynn & Herrington, 2015, p. 10). For this reason the 70:20:10 learning model will also be addressed here in RQ2 as a factor (aside from a developmental method) that can facilitate or hinder an officer's leadership development.

### 8.5.1 The Application of the 70:20:10 Learning Model and the Importance of Informal Learning

As discussed earlier, both corporate and public sector studies highlight that leaders acquire leadership preponderantly through informal learning: 70% on-the-job experiences; 20% through relationships, and only the remaining 10% via formal learning (see Herrington, 2017; Kajewski & Madsen, 2013). These figures give a sense of mathematical precision that is not reflected to any degree in reality, but instead provide indicative weighting; and in general, the findings of Study 3 confirm similar *relative* weighting in the policing context.

The extent of direct support for the 70:20:10 learning model was not easy to fathom. As noted previously in Study 1 (interviews with jurisdictional experts), participants who represented jurisdictions that formally endorsed the model, may have been merely echoing their agency's 'corporate views'. Contrastingly, in Study 3 (stakeholder interviews), the voices of participants were notably absent concerning direct or indirect references to the model. However, what was evident was that the model did not display as a measured outcom, which arose from allocating resources or priorities according to a clearly defined 70:20:10 outcome 'rule'. Instead, the (approximate) 70:20:10 distribution of leadership learning was most likely the outcome of an interplay between the structure of the police leadership environment and the reality of the field.

The paucity of empirical research concerning how police develop as leaders has been previously alluded to, however, some evidence suggests a combination of on-the-job experiences, formal education and mentorship (closely akin to "relationships") is largely responsible (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2010a). Additionally, the AIPM (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Singh, 2013 ) and the QPS (Lavin & Kemp, 2013) have embraced the 70:20:10 approach to professional and leadership development programs,

giving it prominence. Regardless of the illusion of precision, collectively the evidence suggests that developing leadership in police is a synergy of multiple approaches.

As discussed earlier, the evidence highlighted that informal work-based learning for commissioned officers was enacted through a range of jobs and assignments delivered in an *ad hoc* and unsystematic fashion. A key theme which underlined semi-structured interviews (Study 3) was that experience in successfully handling major incidents and significant events was prized by officers and frequently headlined in their CV. The evidence emphasised the process of police officers learning leadership was an applied experience, which is supported by scholarly research in private sector environments (see McCall, 2004, 2010; Shamir & Eilam, 2005). The extant literature in policing has accentuated the importance attached to accumulating experience by "doing time" at the coalface and gaining a good profile, which contributed towards officers' leadership "creds" (see Rowe, 2006; Silvestri, 2006). Hoggett, Redford, Toher, and White (2018) conducted large scale research among all ranks in the UK police and found officers considered the most desirable leadership quality was experience and understanding front-line issues. McCall (2010) noted that certain developmental experiences are more important than others and people learn different lessons from different types of experiences. McCall's assertion was mirrored in officers' accounts of their varied learning experiences. The nature of informal jobs recounted in interviews (Study 3) underscored the weight attributed to work-based assignments in challenging and building officers' leadership. It was evident the nature of the jobs proved critical in terms of what and how much officers learned as leaders. Clearly the bigger and more challenging jobs equated to greater learning outcomes.

The evidence also revealed forming informal work-based relationships with significant other people, primarily with superiors and to a lesser extent colleagues and subordinates, was

critical for officers' development as a leader. This finding is in line with trade or craft-based traditions tethered to the concept of experienced superiors providing younger protégés sage leadership advice through informal mentoring and sponsorship. Consistent with the extant literature in corporate environments (see Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McCauley & Douglas, 2004), participants reported cultivating a network of relationships upon which they derived support, guidance and assistance. This finding was also consistent with the thrust of the 70:20:10 learning model, with work-based relationships (primarily mentoring) seen as twice as important as formal learning (Herrington, 2017; Kajewski & Madsen, 2013). The support aspect associated with forming relationships was considered pivotal and will be explored later when addressing the final research question.

The critical importance attached to establishing good relationships with superiors, primarily through mentoring, was partly related in the data from Study 2. This data emphasised the taxing, dangerous and politically charged policing environment, where officers needed the steady guiding hand, sage advice and support of their mentors. Policing takes place in a context of high risk, which necessitates high levels of trust. Forming relationships in order to facilitate a leader's learning and development is critical, because such relationships not only provide a valuable supply of assessment, challenge and support (McCauley & Douglas, 2004; McCauley, Kanaga & Lafferty, 2010), but also the need to rely on one's peer in terms of carrying out operational tasks.

Study 3 also highlighted the genesis of how senior officers learn leadership began very early in their careers, a finding supported within scholarly writing on corporate environments (see McCall, 2010). Bacon (2014, p. 110), for instance, found new recruits learn key lessons early on the street, under the watchful eye of seasoned veterans. These early learning experiences involved a process of socialisation into the accepted values, beliefs and underlining

assumptions inherent in policing. "Battle-hardened" field training officers have been known to provide younger more impressionable trainee officers advice that can be summed up as "forget what they've told you at the police academy" (Harrington, 2003; White & Fradella, 2016), resulting in formal training being devalued and regularly ignored in practice (White & Fradella, 2016). This is a key message, and may to some degree undermine the "10" in the 70:20:10 approach.

The importance of early learning, however, did not diminish the importance attached to continual or "life-long" learning and development, which emerged as one of the defining characteristics of how the sample learned leadership (also see Stone & Travis, 2013). Officers spoke in depth about the challenging surprises sprung on them as they moved through the ranks and needed to learn new lessons that fitted their new responsibilities.

Despite the importance of relationships in building leadership capacity, evidence from jurisdictional experts (Study 1) highlighted most workplace relationships were relatively disorganised and unstructured arrangements, that is, unstructured mentoring and informal networking, with few agencies investing in any form of structured mentoring, networking or coaching. Again, the lack of empirical evidence driving the process emerged. When examining leader development processes employed by the US Air Force**,** Mazarr (2017) found more formalised systems of mentoring and feedback would result in greater consistency and supplement individual development plans.

Despite the practice of informal relationships driving the mentorship "avenue" for learning leadership, accounts vividly recalled by commissioned officers (Study 3) also revealed that relationships can have a "dark side". A mentorship gone sour can have a devastating impact on an officer's career. Equally, powerful role models in the force, with real leverage and influence over junior officers, can model inappropriate behaviours from mentors that ingrain

ineffective leadership practices in younger protégés. Schafer (2009) found it was equally important to observe inappropriate behaviours in superiors (i.e. reverse role modelling) as a means of learning what leadership behaviours to avoid, but for impressionable junior officers, distinguishing "bad" messages from "good" messages may prove difficult. The evidence also revealed the type of feedback derived from mentors varied considerably in terms of quality, timeliness and consistency, which reflected poorly on the mentors' capabilities.

The evidence revealed opportunities exist for police agencies to better harness leadership development outcomes derived from relationships formed with significant others. As highlighted earlier, in Study 1 jurisdictional experts acknowledged potential benefits derived from implementing a formal mentoring program. Consistent with the research (see Groves, 2006) additional leadership development outcomes can result if agencies operate a formal mentoring system, driven by some degree of structure, which runs concurrently with an informal networking arrangement, with positive benefits accruing from both methods.

Evidence from jurisdictional experts (Study 1) highlighted how agencies, particularly at lower ranks, relied upon structured or formal professional and leadership development opportunities tethered to promotional requirements permeating a "one size fits all" or "cookie cutter" approach. Jurisdictions that relied upon formal programs and courses reflected an organisationally controlled (as opposed to learner-shaped) approach, resulting in a segmented development for commissioned officers, which lacked integration. This segmented approach to development was compounded by some jurisdictions treating formal structured learning (i.e. the 10% involving in-house programs linked to promotion or tertiary education) as the panacea to officers' development as leaders while leaving the 90% of informal learning largely to chance. Herrington (2017) found Australian police agencies' tendency to treat

structured or formal programs as the beginning and end of officers' development, with little effort invested in ways to best assist the remaining 90% of informal development.

### 8.5.2 Officers' Key Characteristics and the Ability to Learn

Key characteristics possessed by officers were found to be a factor which facilitated or hindered their ability to learn leadership. In McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010, p. 5) two-part leadership model (described earlier), an individual's ability to learn was defined as a "complex combination of motivational factors, personality factors and learning tactics". This research did not investigate all three elements but instead identified a number of "key characteristics" that emerged as instrumental in their development as leaders.

As previously highlighted, the average age of commissioned officers was 50 years—officers not just near the tail end of their careers but also near the peak of their powers—each with over three decades of service. Put simply, this select cohort were *winners:* they had not only survived but thrived within the rich contextual milieu of policing. As noted earlier, officers were predominately male which arguably played a defining role in them prospering within a macho driven environment. This highly homogenous group had flourished within the unique development system and distinctive police culture. However, this assimilation arguably made them ill-equipped to identify personal characteristics that facilitated and inhibited their development as leaders. This research revealed four key characteristics that helped facilitate their development: resilience (see Dobby et al., 2004; Keane & Bell, 2014), compliance (see Haarr, 2005), flexibility (see Baker, 2011; Schafer, 2010a), and intuition (see Macdonald, 1995; Vito, Suresh, & Richards, 2011). These key characteristics, coupled with over 80% of the cohort being qualified detectives, proved instrumental in advancing officers' leadership. In this sense the study strongly confirmed previous findings within scholarly writings. Fielding (1994), for example, found being appointed a detective afforded officers a higher

status in policing. The intense, unpredictable and at times dangerous context of police work dictates officers need to be resilient, flexible and use their gut instinct to survive the taxing environment. The need to be compliant was ingrained in the rank controlled and rule driven hierarchical bureaucracy where complying with superiors' orders is considered critical for political survival. Being a detective afforded officers "street cred" and ability to operate effectively at the coalface.

While these themes match what is already in the literature, some new findings emerged. Despite emphasising the significance of receiving feedback from superiors, officers admitted their own reluctance to seek feedback at times stymied their career ambitions. In addition, some officers reported possessing an introverted nature did not benefit their career advancement. While the literature (e.g. Fielding's aforementioned study) does touch on the "warrior" component of the police "persona", the research presented evidence of how these "winners" thrived (but secretly at times suffered) in the unforgiving male/macho policing environment.

### 8.5.3 Police Culture

The "macho" warrior "culture" of policing is clearly a factor in how police leadership is developed (or allowed to develop) in policing. However it is not the only facet of culture that emerged as influential in this thesis. Predictably, officers reported both positive (loyalty, solidarity, sense of mission) and negative (risk averse, arrogant, masculinised and politicised) aspects of culture and its impact on their development as leaders. However, the preponderance of references to culture was negative. Broadly, the culture was perceived as limiting or constraining their leadership development, which in turn adversely impacted their ability to respond to challenges they confronted at the coalface. Police culture was characterised as strongly change resistant (see Charles, 1991; Cockcroft, 2014; Crank, 2014;

Davis & Bailey, 2018; Keelty, 2013; Shanahan, 2000). For instance, the wide-sweeping reform measures initiated by the QPS Reform (2013) and the Keelty Review (2013) left an indelible impression on the psyche of many commissioned officers. When interviewed, officers weathered by constant reform reported staunch resistance from troops to major organisational changes, and indeed resistance on their own part to change imposed by their political masters. Over time, their resilience was worn down by constant battles to make personal adjustments to organisational changes together with pressures from senior executives to drive reform measures, and this reportedly had deleterious impacts on their growth as leaders.

In Study 2 (survey instrument), officers reported that organisational culture placed more emphasis on developing *managers* as opposed to *leaders*, a finding mirrored in the interviews with commissioned officers (Study 3) when participants complained about micro-management behaviour of superiors. This evidence is consistent with the literature (Chapter 3), which portrays police organisations as having a powerful tradition of favouring management over leadership (Davis & Bailey, 2018; Schafer, 2009; Vito et al., 2011).

Considering that policing is about confronting risk, officers somewhat surprisingly reported their leadership stymied when they confronted risk-adverse superiors, which deterred officers from making innovative and courageous decisions. This evidence aligns with research undertaken by Schafer (2009) in the US on risk-adverse police culture, and the ironic rewards in terms of promotion offered to those who managed to navigate risk in a relatively cautious way. In summary, the research showed police culture was highly influential in constraining or restricting officers developing their leadership. A number of other macro-organisational characteristics identified in this research will now be presented, that facilitated and hindered officers' development as leaders.

### 8.5.4 Macro-Organisational Characteristics that Facilitated and Hindered Leadership Development

The research highlighted the importance of having leadership development integrated within the organisation's infrastructure. For instance, various corporate and human resource (HR) structures and policies were isolated in the studies as facilitating and hindering commissioned officers. For example, the evidence revealed selection practices for officer development often involved a senior executive making a "captain's call", with decisions shrouded in mystery and typically non-coherent and/or non-transparent. This practice and lack of policy development had a deleterious effect on officer morale and motivation and was linked to officer disengagement. The importance within all organisations—not just in policing—to employ robust selection policy and procedures to ensure correct candidates are chosen for leadership development has been highlighted (see Leskiw & Singh, 2007).

The first study revealed most agencies administered various formal "in-house" training for commissioned officers involving the expenditure of considerable resources to produce. However, jurisdictions' evaluation processes employed were at best superficial with most heavily reliant upon student feedback. The evidence revealed evaluation processes and procedures employed by jurisdictions lacked maturity and were superficial in nature. Herrington (2017) noted that police agencies had previous history for not properly assessing leadership development interventions, adding this practice was not limited to public sector agencies but was also largely ignored within scholarly research on management and leadership.

The evidence also revealed that jurisdictional HR policies and procedures lacked strategic intent and alignment by being procedural in nature and overly focused on promotional requirements. Content matter experts asserted their jurisdictions needed to develop a coherent strategic policy that articulated how leadership development contributed to

leadership outcomes at an organisational and individual level. Again, a theme of operations and procedures being disconnected from empirical evidence, and instead relying on officers' "instincts" or other *ad hoc* processes, emerged.

Related to integrated interventions was the need for HR policies to facilitate officer engagement in development, together with top management support. An inherent component of leadership development comprises the ability of both individuals and groups to actively engage in various leadership practices (Day & Dragoni, 2015). Signs of disengagement within lower ranks were evident in the survey questionnaire (Study 2) where inspectors (compared to their higher ranked counterparts) perceived they were more likely "overlooked" for promotion. In addition, compared to superintendents, inspectors felt leadership wasn't one of their priorities. The need for strategies to sustain on-going engagement of senior level police officers in professional development has been recognised as a critical HR issue in Australia (Fleming, 2004; NSWPF, 2018). The cohort was, as noted, an ageing population with some nearing retirement and others feeling disenchanted concerning their promotional and development prospects. Feeling the proximity of a "glass ceiling" left officers feeling relatively disengaged. It's a risk inherent in the relatively flat upper echelons of the QPS. The research also emphasised that top management support was critical for leadership development to be effective and take prominence in a policing organisation. For instance, some jurisdictional experts (Study 1) underlined how in the eyes of senior level officers, "lip-service" paid by top executives damaged the credibility of developmental interventions. QPS commissioned officers (Study 3) also described how top ranked brass provided "token" support that had a debilitating and demoralising impact on their development aspirations. These findings align with research undertaken in corporate entities that highlight top management support is critical in determining the success or otherwise of leadership development endeavours (see Dalakoura, 2010; Leskiw & Singh, 2007; McCall, 2010).

### 8.5.5 Informal Learning – Implications

In terms of planning and expenditure of police resources, most time, preparation and costs are focused on formal learning through structured in-house interventions including courses and programs qualifying officers for promotion. This finding is at odds with the theoretical learning model (i.e. 70:20:10) which asserts that the vast majority of learning is derived through informal means (work-based and relationships) and the remaining 10% through formal interventions (structured training). Indeed, the evidence revealed this model, as just noted, was supported. Thus informal learning, where little development effort was concentrated, proved markedly more valuable in achieving leadership development outcomes but formal efforts were supported, in terms of resourcing and emphasis, by the organisational structure. As McCall (2010) attests, informal learning, such as jobs assignments, can be made more effective by carefully selecting the right job assignment to align with the individual's developmental requirements. On the part of the officers themselves, there was a clear understanding that the fluid, unpredictable nature of the police operational environment and emphases on formal education in leadership generally offer a poor fit. What Kajewski and Madsen (2013, p. 4) call "informal, on-the-job, experience based, stretch projects and practice" continue to be relied upon in practice as the primary means of enhancing officer leadership capabilities. However, officers questioned the content and quality of their on-the-job learning experiences, a finding consistent with police scholarly research (see Gaston & King, 1995). Officers are given "professional development allowances" to attend tertiary and other formal courses but the expenditure of such funds are monitored closely, rather than encouraged. While tertiary and other formal courses are "in-principal" supported by the organisation, senior executives pay homage to officers' performances "in the field" as opposed to degrees which adorn their office walls.

The primary goal of police services is not learning and development. On-the-job learning is not something that society organises for police to learn; instead, police learn as by-product of doing their primary role within the Service, enforcing the law and protecting the public. Job assignments are not governed by any systematic learning process, as officers' developmental outcomes are regarded as a poor cousin compared to operational policing priorities. Therefore, in policing, education and training competes with core policing priorities. While training and development is important to ensure officers competently undertake their duties, operational priorities dictate that developing leaders is relegated at the expense of achieving core policing functions.

In addition, policing is a characteristically unpredictable and at times uncontrollable enterprise requiring rapid responses to emergency situations and disasters. Emergency situations and pressing timeframes dictate a need for agility in decision making. After years of experience, officers become accustomed to this process (Bayley & Bittner, 1984) and making decisions by "gut instinct" (Wordes, 2000). As a result, senior executives appear comfortable and arguably well equipped to make sudden decisions or "captain's calls" when allocating job assignments, just as more junior officers need to make rapid decisions out in the field, without full access to information or resources. The process is not done primarily on the basis of "is this a good learning experience for this officer"? Instead, senior executives assign officers considered competent in executing the assignment and therefore guarantee a successful outcome which in turn positively impacts on their career progression. *To the winners go the spoils.*

Despite this natural tendency for police executives to "pick winners" to tackle uncontrollable and unplanned policing events, many job assignments are predictable including relieving duties and even planned operations. Officers felt aggrieved when senior executives made

arbitrary decisions (for example, critically, on who was assigned to what project) based on unclear criteria and non-coherent or transparent processes, and subsequently questioned the merit, fairness and equity involved in this process. This is not unique to Australian policing. Within the UK, Neyroud (2010) found deploying robust selection methods when choosing applicants was critical when developing police leaders. In the US, inferior standards and selections were identified as a major impediment to expanding leadership development in police leaders (Schafer, 2010a). While in a related case involving promotion and selection for police executives in the UK and Europe, Caless and Tong (2017, p. 86) described such practices as "opaque and unstructured".

The evidence here highlighted the need that allocating developmental opportunities to commissioned officers be transparent and based on judgements that are empirically sound. It is understandable that operational requirements suggest that "ready-made" officers capable of delivering are assigned to critical operations, and that learning opportunities are subsidiary; however, in the absence of evidence that certain officers *are* "ready-made", these decisions understandably cause resentment. Therefore, an evidence-based suite of developmental opportunities (and metrics to measure whether certain staff "fit" these opportunities) would enhance positive leadership development outcomes. Additionally, the evidence showed systematic and robust evaluation processes were not routinely applied, making it problematic to determine the effectiveness of leadership development interventions (see Mazarr, 2017).

The use of on-the-job assignments reflects policing as an applied practice that relies heavily upon officers acquiring their leadership capabilities primarily through informal workplace learning. Carter (2013) notes that aside from motivations of individual learners, informal on-the-job learning is heavily contingent upon managers' capabilities to assess and assign, together with types of strategies applied. Concerning the managers' role in facilitating

informal workplace learning, Carter (2013) makes suggestions that could be equally applied to a policing context. For instance, police superiors need to support workers to undertake risks and challenges; actively assist employees plan and implement their learning and collaborate with others; and replicate work conditions conducive to learning and positive workplace interaction. In contrast, superiors' appeared to possess an optimistic but ultimately naïve assumption that informal learning occurred naturally and by merely adopting a "set and forgot" approach would culminate in officers 'automatically' acquire leadership capability. Such an approach is compatible with a "cream-rises-to-the-top" philosophy of leader development, and de-emphasises the role of structured, planned leadership development programs.

In summary, a number of issues emerged repeatedly in response to the second research question: the absence of good quality evidence driving consistent approaches to various aspects of leadership development; instead there is a reliance on factors that may well be unfair, *ad hoc*, non-transparent, confusing and personality-driven, and a "split personality" in the way leadership is taught formally and the way officers *saw* leadership as being learned. Finally, senior police executives undertake a critical role in administering job assignments, but clearly their primary role is *not* one of educators. However, in this important learning space, more proactive work can be done by police agencies to enable officers to better learn leadership. The overall finding from this research is that officers solidly support work as their primary "classroom" for learning leadership, although it is worth noting that little empirical research exists to support its efficacy (see Hartley & Hinksman, 2003).

## 8.6 RQ3: To What Extent is Leadership Development of Senior Police Influenced by Aspects of Challenge, Feedback and Support?

The third research question aimed to identify the extent to which leadership development of senior police was influenced by aspects of challenge, feedback and support. The scholarly literature separates challenge from support, and while they are clearly two different constructs, commissioned officers when interviewed (Study 3) tended to conflate the variables in their discussion.

As highlighted earlier in this chapter, policing offers unique job challenges: extreme, unpredictable and dangerous situations are the norm. Rather than summing up the challenge in this general way, officers tended to turn to particularly high stress incidents to illustrate the point. As we noted in the response to RQ1, officers frequently saw periods of challenge as opportunities for rapid learning; or rather than *opportunities*, moments that *necessitated* rapid learning. While a number of officers were quite open in admitting the toll that continual "challenge" had taken on their health and personal life, they also revealed an understanding of the role that challenge played in their development. Officers detailed periods where lack of challenge, insufficient support and feedback (discussed later) left them ill-equipped to deal with moments when they were asked to "step up" and be assigned to higher challenge roles. In fact, what was noticeably absent from officers' detailed *lived* job experiences were references to learning acquired through routine, predictable and everyday duties. Instead, relatively short, sharp and intense situations were isolated for attention.

The research also illustrated a fundamental paradox of policing: from an organisational perspective, police jurisdictions in Australia can be characterised as highly-structured, formal and hierarchical, with job roles, behaviour and duties tightly controlled by documented laws and policies, and officiated by the judicial system, external oversight and government-

sanctioned authorities. This conservative, mechanistic body, however, is tasked with encountering the highly organic structure that is crime, social disorder and crisis (for example, murders, sieges, fatal car accidents or floods). The way officers become leaders capable of meeting the challenge of the task, while keeping aligned with the strictures of the organisation they belong to, is the key challenge for police leaders. The result of the conflict between these two very different worlds is psychological and physical stress. In a finding that matches work in the psychological literature, too low levels of stress lead to low levels of development, while too great stress was associated with officers "shutting down" and suffering physical and psychological consequences. The literature suggests that some arousal is required to stimulate action and learning, however, too much arousal "leads to the narrowing of attention that causes employees to neglect relevant as well as irrelevant tasks and thereby reduce … work performance levels" (Kalia, 2002, p. 49). Excessive levels of arousal eventually paralyses performance, particularly on complex tasks, and this is known as the stress-performance curve (Raitano & Kleiner, 2004) or more generally as the Yerkes-Dodson law (Teigen, 1994). The Yerkes-Dobson law is grounded on the premise that "increasing stress is beneficial to performance until some optimal level is reached, after which performance will decline – the familiar inverted U diagram" (Le Fevre, Matheny, & Kolt, 2003, p. 729).

Officers experienced negative stress accompanied by feelings of frustration when performance standards did not equate to self-imposed standards. The research revealed that superiors play a critical role in optimising learning outcomes for subordinates when undertaking work-based assignments. Officers' learning was also hindered when tension existed between self-imposed performance levels and expectations from their superiors. Through a process of communication and feedback, superiors need to constantly access officers' skill levels and learning progress to determine whether sufficient challenge exists.

This may prove problematic in routine and mundane duties, which are difficult to modify to create sufficient challenge. While superiors need to carefully monitor officers' stress levels and be aware of well-being issues in serious and challenging events, our findings show the negative effects of micro-management as well. Thus, a difficult balancing act of being supportive, empathic and attentive on one hand, without "over-managing" or needlessly interfering on the other (leading to disempowerment) needs to be achieved. Officers' descriptions of supportive superiors regularly included examples of *constructive* feedback. Similarly, officers' examples of positive and usable feedback appeared confined to *supportive* superiors.

So superiors' behaviour, not surprisingly in a highly hierarchical organisational structure, emerged as a key factor in leadership development. It is important to note that superiors' characteristics emerged as significantly more influential than that of peers, subordinates, or even family and friends. The analysis revealed that although important, the influence these "significant others" had on officers' development was not considerable, compared with the powerful impact superiors had, in terms of their key characteristics together with support and feedback provided. However, superiors had the power to damage as well as enhance the leadership development of those in their charge.

### 8.6.1 Supportive Superiors

In line with the research question, feedback, challenge and support emerged from the discourse and responses of officers in semi-structured interviews (Study 3), and less persuasively in the responses to the survey in Study 2, as key variables (Note in Study 2, support and feedback were raised as variables rather than allowed to emerge in the manner they did in Study 3). As noted earlier in this chapter, officers perceived that the significant majority of learning as a police leader was acquired through informal means. A somewhat

difficult to categorise form of learning in this regard is the feedback received from superiors. In a hierarchical system, this feedback can be construed, in a sense, as formal learning because it is learning that emerges in a structured or semi-structured manner from the organisational structure. Officers were heavily reliant upon the quality of feedback and support from superiors, which had a dramatic impact on their learning outcomes as leaders. This feedback was often sporadic or otherwise not adequate in frequency or content, but nevertheless, the feedback was perceived as critical.

It is not surprising that the skill of giving good feedback was identified as valuable, but that commanding officers nevertheless did not display the ability to deliver it. With some exceptions (see Mastrofski, 2018), the extant literature has not characteristically highlighted the necessity of being an educator or trainer as a key trait of good or effective police leaders. The need for police superiors to provide opportunities and rewards as a core characteristic required of police leaders has also attracted little scholarly attention, again with some exceptions (see Adams & Beck, 2001; Casey & Mitchell, 2007; Densten, 2003).

Ensuring a cadre of leaders that possess qualities necessary to support subordinates to become better leaders should be seen as an organisational imperative within police agencies. The research has highlighted good police leaders need to possess key characteristics identified as important in developing leadership in subordinates. To this end, selection criteria for promotion could be linked to key characteristics considered pivotal in enhancing the leadership of staff. Such an approach would “future proof” potential leaders by instilling the key characteristics needed to support the development of future senior leaders. Police officers’ promotional criteria could also be aligned to ensure those who have excelled in performing as a leader and been successful as mentor or coach be rewarded accordingly.

Little existing empirically-validated evidence was found investigating the link between supportive supervisors and police leadership development. Instead, the extant literature focused on the association between supervisor support and police officer stress, work performance, job satisfaction and turnover (see Brough, Drummond, & Biggs, 2018; Brough & Frame, 2004; Violanti & Aron, 1994). Officers placed much weight on superiors "having their back", particularly during high stress pressure cooker situations where risks were high. Officers reported stress levels being exacerbated when they perceived superiors' support was lacking, a finding which is supported by scholarly research (see Anshel, 2000). In summary, this research identified a dominant theme that officers needed to have their superiors' support, particularly when dealing with highly stressful and challenging job assignments. Officers believed this support, accompanied by liberal doses of feedback from superiors, was the key to their development as leaders – a finding that aligns with police scholarly literature (see Garner, 2017; Haake, Rantatalo, & Lindberg, 2017; Murphy & Drodge, 2004).

In spite of the large body of literature devoted to articulating the key characteristics of good police leaders (see Chapter 3), there is lack of accord concerning common, core or critical attributes and behaviours required (Caless & Tong, 2017). The literature is largely anecdotal or opinion-based and lacks objective assessment concerning the key requirements of leaders at senior levels within policing (Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2009). Haake, Rantatalo, and Lindberg (2017) highlight the incomplete link between good leadership and clearly-articulated markers of performance, outcomes or results. The difficulty involved in attempting to measure effectiveness in police leadership is problematic considering police work is inherently complex and outcomes are largely unpredictable (Haake et al., 2017). Instead, supportive leaders or leaders who actively support subordinates have been provided varying labels such as "desirable", "good" and "effective" leaders (see Bryman, Stephens, & aCampo, 1996).

However, Study 3, involving semi-structured interviews (based on a representative sample of senior officers), identified six key characteristics of supportive leaders that officers frequently cited in their discourse and pursued during their careers: pedagogical skills, good communicators, honest and ethical, knowledgeable and credible, approachable and caring, and providing opportunities and rewards. In a systematic literature review spanning two decades and drawn from multiple jurisdictions in a number of western police agencies, Pearson-Goff and Herrington (2013) found various studies investigating the characteristics of good or effective police leaders (see Chapter 3). These researchers divided these key characteristics into seven frequently cited attributes and five commonly described behaviours characteristically found in good or effective police leaders. This PhD research identified a significant overlap with Pearson-Goff and Herrington's list of key characteristics identified in good or effective leaders, with the exception of pedagogical skills and the provision of opportunities and rewards. In addition, the need for leaders to be caring and approachable has received less focused theoretical attention (see Murphy & Drodge, 2004). Traits including sensitivity, compassion and empathy have often been labelled "effeminate" and are likely counterintuitive to the macho police culture.

Police are the product of a male-dominated culture, despite evidence a more collaborative approach could arguably bring about enhanced performance (Kelman & Hong, 2016). Descriptions of the lived work experiences of commissioned officers reflected at best an unforgiving and at worst a brutal police environment reinforced by the macho police culture. Superiors were generally characterised as tough and uncompromising and expected subordinates to possess similar hardy and resilient qualities to deal with extreme challenges presented by police work. In spite of this, participants reported superiors who supported their leadership aspirations and were approachable and caring – a quality they admired and respected and that nourished their leadership.

Again, there is a paradox here for policing, at least for senior leaders: needing to be seen as tough and battle-hardened to their subordinates while remaining caring and empathic to the public when dealing with social problems. When they faced an audience of their peers, that is of police at or below their level, there was a tendency to abandon collaborative or empathic modes of communication and management. Yet as Bryman et al. (1996) point out, street-level officers perceived outward displays of empathy by senior officers involving social problems as going soft on crime and losing sight of an officer's core crime fighting role. In addition, the results-orientated, performance-driven culture of policing, which expects senior officers to make difficult and quick decisions, may not favour consultative and participatory leadership styles characteristically associated with female officers (Silvestri, 2007).

Ensuring greater gender diversity at senior police levels should therefore alter maladaptive aspects of 'masculine' police culture. A greater representation of female officers at senior levels may bring more empathic, caring and supportive leadership, which officers clearly acknowledged was important in advancing their leadership. However, Haake et al. (2017) highlight an internal division of labour in policing, which results in lower status roles more likely to be filled by female officers who exhibit "soft" and caring skills, while higher status roles that are more daring in nature are more likely occupied by male officers. Additionally, studies have found female police leaders constantly have to prove that they are credible and capable and be more qualified than their male counterparts (see Haake et al., 2017; Österlind & Haake, 2010). Considering change in police organisations is traditionally slow, achieving gender diversity within senior ranks may realistically entail a longer time goal. In the interim, officers vying for leadership positions could receive additional "tailored" training and support in areas in which they were considered deficient and in need of further development, based on criteria linked to characteristics that support the enhancement of their subordinates' leadership.

### 8.6.2 Unsupportive Superiors

The research revealed unsupportive superiors were perceived as a significant barrier to officers developing their leadership, for a myriad of reasons including withholding developmental opportunities. Schafer (2010a) identified ineffective or inadequate leadership as one of the largest barriers to police developing as leaders. Participants identified superiors who failed to provide adequate support and feedback for their leadership development as displaying several key characteristics. To a large degree these findings are simply the mirror of those identified previously when discussing supportive superiors: ineffective communicators, untrustworthy, micromanaging, unethical, close minded, capricious and judgemental. Some additional characteristics derived from the research were linked to unsupportive leaders, including political, conservative and risk averse, self-serving, apathetic, and reluctant to offer opportunities or resources to support their advancement as leaders. Researchers have lamented the existence of poor or ineffective leadership in policing (see Rowe, 2006; Schafer, 2010b), however with some notable exceptions (see Bryman et al., 1996; Schafer, 2010b), little scholarly attention has been paid to attributes and behaviours that characterise inept police leaders. Again, not surprisingly, inability to give good quality or sufficient feedback emerged as a key complaint.

### 8.6.3 Implications

The research revealed the type of support and feedback provided by superiors together with their key characteristics was pivotal in determining the extent to which officers developed their leadership. The focus in the scholarly literature has been on attempts at identifying a "winning" or superior style of leadership (see Voola, Carlson, & West, 2004; Walsh & Vito, 2018; Youngs, 2010), whereas participants' accounts in this set of studies indicates there is no single way to successfully develop police leaders. Instead, it may be more valuable to focus on sets of skills that are associated with positive progression in leadership. The ability

to provide good quality and well-timed feedback, the ability to offer sufficient resources and support to accompany opportunities to learn in the field, and be transparent in decision making were characteristics that almost every officer in this study supported. A failure to model good leadership not only hampers the development of promising police leaders, it also may actively model bad characteristics that will emerge in future leaders.

Officers yearned for their superiors to "always have their backs", particularly when mistakes were made, because major lessons as leaders were acquired when they encountered failure. This finding accords with the literature where officers learned significant leadership lessons when their superiors gave them licence to practise and make mistakes (see Pearson-Goff & Herrington, 2013; Schafer, 2008), which proved difficult for bosses in such a risk-averse police culture.

While it is clear (for example, from crime statistics in countries like Australia) that leadership in policing is not in crises, this research indicates, however, that traditional or top-down leadership styles may not necessarily be conducive to developing future leaders, particularly when confronting difficult and complex 21st century policing challenges. Altering leadership styles means changing leadership culture, which presents significant challenges, as this type of reform would need to come from the top. An alternative approach would be to champion particular leadership behaviours as desirable through role modelling. Dobby et al. (2004) advocated the use of positive role models for aspiring leaders as a means to address poor leadership.

Another issue to emerge beneath the discourse is that officers are not being "developed" by the police service, but rather surviving the difficulties thrown up by their work. This means that the nature of police "leadership development" is resulting in survivors becoming leaders. The literature on the value of diversity in group decision making shows that having a

homogenous group of leaders (in this case, homogenous in age, race and gender, for example) is not optimal, particularly when the nature of the leadership does not reflect the nature of the community. Greater diversity in leadership groups results in better decision making (see Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2012; Watson, Johnson, Kumar, & Critelli, 1998) and greater creativity in decision making. It is possible, in fact plausible, that senior police leaders pick and support more junior officers "in their own image" to actively develop, therefore repeating the cycle.

Finally, the evidence also revealed that, after completing formal development and returning to the field armed with new knowledge, officers experienced feeling stunted or constrained by the lack of a supportive environment engendered by superiors. As some scholars contend (see Flynn & Herrington, 2015; Herrington, 2017), it is imperative officers returning to their workplace after completing formal developmental interventions receive appropriate support from bosses by ensuring subordinates' on-going development has contextual relevance.

### 8.6.4 Organisational Support within the Context of Culture

Officers believed organisational shortcomings impeded their development: underlying structural impediments included HR policy and procedures but also restrictive and at times inappropriate organisational culture and lack of organisational support in terms of resourcing. Participants reported that insufficient or absent organisational support exacerbated stress, which aligns with the literature findings (see Anshel, 2000). Thompson, Kirk, and Brown (2005), for instance, found police culture was likely to dissuade officers from seeking support. Some officers reported well-being support to be inadequate, likely attributable (in part) to the macho culture that expected officers to "tough it out". In addition, commissioned officers were also perceived as "management cops" by rank and file counterparts and cultural undertones dictated managers in "cushy" corporate offices wouldn't need the same well-

being support as troops battling criminals “at the coalface”. Therefore, the need to align organisational culture and infrastructure leads to good leadership development (see Kodz & Campbell, 2010; Neyroud, 2010).

The thesis indicated officers perceived a lack of formal and informal opportunities to enhance their development as leaders – a finding consistent with scholarly evidence derived from other police agencies, including the US (see Schafer, 2008) and Europe (Caless & Tong, 2017). The need for learning systems that provide sufficient developmental opportunities has been emphasised within the corporate sector (Leskiw & Singh, 2007), with access to quality developmental opportunities pinpointed as a serious limitation with police agencies (see Schafer, 2010a). The cultural perception that “management cops” have already “made it” and don’t really need any more development may in part explain why commissioned officers reported lacking access to developmental opportunities. Job demands and associated time constraints may also play a role in terms of limiting access. The “one-size fits all” or “cookie cutter” approach to development (alluded to earlier) prevalent in some police agencies may explain why quality development opportunities, tailored to individual’s needs, are not readily provided by the organisation. Kodz and Campbell (2010) promoted the use of tailored developmental approaches in policing that matched the officers’ learning style to their individual developmental needs.

Finally, the third research question was guided by a component leadership development model championed by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) involving developmental experiences being underpinned by three key elements: assessment i.e. feedback, challenge and support. The structured interview process intentionally steered participants’ responses towards these key elements. However, the richness, depth and intensity of officers’ responses reinforced the central premise that for optimal leadership

development to occur, sufficient challenge was of critical importance together with the need for timely and positive feedback and support, primarily from superiors.

## 8.7 Key Recommendations

Rather than leadership development being a method or process of assisting leaders to reach a point where they can be successful in their more senior roles, police leadership development appears to be more a series of hurdles that only the "athletic" officer can surmount, with the result being a survivor rather than a successful student and a good leader. It is certain that this leads to a constraint on diversity in senior police leadership. It is possible that significant talent, which would prove valuable to delivering better leadership in policing, is absent because the *ad hoc* system of police development has mistakenly "weeded out" that talent. **In the interests of building diversity in police leadership, as well as ensuring a balance of talent, changes are required to ensure that what makes good leadership in policing is better understood, and then nurtured through appropriate provision of support and resources.**

Police leadership development programs, in the jurisdiction subject to this research, was largely quarantined away from operations. So training and operational learning were largely separate. There is often no clear and coherent attempt to link these two domains. One corollary of this finding is that it is almost certain that **leadership training can be improved by better integrating training into operations.** Officers afforded greater support and resources in these new, stretch roles will learn more rapidly, and are less likely to experience attrition because of failing to surmount the challenge. Command and control exercises in the field are an exception where theory and practice are tested. Action learning approaches appear well suited as vehicles to drive officers' learning in the field while addressing two separate but equally critical purposes: developmental requirements and operational needs.

We need more empirical evidence to back up the relationship between these exercises and field reality. **The exercises may need to be modified to optimise the fit between exercise and operational requirements.**

The need for greater use of evidence and transparency in assigning field operations to officers at key stages of their career emerged as a key theme in this thesis. To some degree greater self-directed learning opportunities address this need, but the operational nature of policing suggests that assigning officers to roles will remain hierarchically controlled. If this is the case, **greater transparency, fairness, and evidence to support decisions to assign officers to tasks with learning and development opportunities is required.** For officers assigned to these unusual crises, **formalised mentorship services, with a range of skills from officers experienced in those circumstances, are required to ensure that officers do "swim" rather than "sink".** As Petrie (2014) argues, to engender stronger ownership of leadership development it is critical to get the culture right, so it is safe for staff to challenge themselves as leaders by extending beyond their comfort zones.

The importance of good quality feedback and support was a strong and consistent theme that permeated this thesis. There was a tendency for senior officers to offer too little rather than too much feedback. This appears to be partly an issue of organisational culture and the imbalance of male officers at the more senior ranks. As previously alluded to, there is a need to incorporate strategies that achieve greater gender equity at senior levels. This may take time to achieve, therefore, in the interim, training of superiors needs to take a front seat. **Training on the importance and delivery of feedback is required to attempt to overcome this shortfall in culture. Officers who excel as trainers or in the delivery of feedback should be recognised and rewarded in various ways, including promotion.** In terms of

enhancing ownership for leadership development, Petrie (2014) attests organisational rewards systems need to be better realigned with an emphasis on both development and performance.

The reliance on rank-based promotion by police jurisdictions, as a means of developing officers' leadership capability, displayed obvious limitations. The "cookie cutter" or "one size fits all" approach where standard developmental interventions are universally applied becomes increasingly impotent as officers mature as leaders and yearn for greater latitude to determine their own learning priorities. **The research revealed self-directed learning approaches need to be encouraged and that officer development be actively supported via a tailored plan that addresses their individual requirements**.

## 8.8 Theoretical implications and further Research

Several general theoretical implications arise out of this thesis. One of the broader challenges that limit theory-building in the field is the absence of a common definition of police leadership, which hampers progress for both scholars and practitioners. If no consensus is achieved (which would appear likely), then future research efforts could focus on identifying leadership styles and behaviours (and their performance correlates), which will impact ways to best develop future police leaders.

This study was purposely confined to the upper echelons of policing comprising officers approaching the end of their working lives. More research is needed to determine how to best develop leadership for lower ranked police officers in the early and mid-stages of their careers. In addition, similar studies targeting police organisations from different countries (and cultures) would add to the existing body of knowledge.

As alluded to previously, the 70:20:10 learning model, by McCall et al. (1988), and McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman's (2010) two-part learning model where were the primarily theoretical frameworks which guided this research. Both models appear to have considerable merit in police leadership development and future research efforts could explore better ways to apply each model within differing policing contexts. In particular, the 70:20:10 learning model warrants further empirical exploration within the complex and richly textured environment of policing, due to its enduring popularity within Australian policing and lack of empirical evidence to support its efficacy. One research approach could focus on verifying the accuracy of the mathematical percentages involved, which presently represent no more than indicative weightings. Considering over three decades have elapsed since the 70:20:10 learning model was first promoted by McCall et al. (1988), finding ways to accurately prove the somewhat artificially constructed percentages quoted in the model - may likely prove a bridge too far. Instead, perhaps a more applied way of refining the model would be to avoid attempts to prove arbitrary percentages and instead focus future research efforts on how to better articulate, plan and seamlessly integrate the three components of the 70:20:10 process. It is possible the 70:20:10 model is *particularly* well suited, with its heavy weighting to applied learning to the police context, and is particularly unsuited to more formal leadership contexts where leaders have access to more reliable data, and are not dealing with the oppositional world of crime.

The study also highlights a fundamental tension between structure and flexibility in the world of senior policing and leadership theory as it stands is poorly equipped to simultaneously handle these two very different contexts. Policing is founded on the rule of law, hierarchical 'obedience' and structural imperatives. Police work requires leadership skills that lie somewhere on a continuum between high degree of flexibility in response to a rapidly changing context and, at times, an outright bending of the rules to achieve the social end-

goals given to policing. A two-stage leadership theory, that states under x conditions, rule-following, formal leadership styles are indicated, while under y conditions, a more flexible context-responsive approach is indicated, appears to have merit.

As previously mentioned, this research was not causal. Therefore, future research could investigate the efficacy of leadership development methods and approaches by gauging how individuals change. Such studies will require a longitudinal design, with more or less random allocation of participants to different conditions, in order to unravel cause and effect. Using secondary data on a national or international scale may enable some causal deductions to be drawn without the need for longitudinal intervention studies.

In addition, further studies exploring the link between leadership development and organisational outcomes is warranted. Both endeavours would shine a light on the efficacy of future developmental efforts. Future research could also capture a "complete" *360-degree view* of leadership development by delving into the perceptions of superiors and subordinates. This thesis caught a glimpse of how officers developed as leaders by gleaning current perceptions. It is recommended longitudinal studies could provide a richer and perhaps clearer picture of how leaders mature over time. An unexpected but compelling finding from this thesis was the differentially significant role played by superiors in leadership development, particularly the necessity to possess certain characteristics to properly facilitate the enhancement of officers in their charge. It is suggested more empirical research needs to be initiated that investigates those key characteristics and how they can be better engendered.

## 8.9 Final Conclusions

This research was grounded within the rich contextual milieu of policing, which highlighted how senior officers enhanced their leadership against a backdrop of a uniquely Australian policing context. The researcher took advantage of his "insider's knowledge" to gain rare,

unfettered and privileged access to the complex and expansive world of policing, which in turn provided a voyeuristic peek at the rich, valuable and colourful insights of senior leaders and how they emerged as *winners*. These winners (or survivors) had successfully navigated a challenging, arduous and protracted career trajectory to the upper echelons of the organisation, becoming part of an elite cadre of officers charged with leading a large and geographically disperse state-based police jurisdiction.

This research has highlighted the advancement of police leadership was not solely reliant upon traditional formal training. Instead, officer development was largely facilitated informally through *ad hoc* and challenging on the job assignments and through work-based relationships. Relationships with superiors were central to an officers' development as leaders. When superiors provided liberal doses of feedback and support, officers flourished as leaders; when this was absent, officers literally failed to thrive.

This thesis revealed the 70:20:10 model somewhat artificially portrays learning as a deliberate and structured process, and the neat delineation is deceptive. In one sense, the 70:20:10 rule reflects the realities of policing. Policing is not about paperwork and planning as much as operating at the "front-line", in a highly unstructured and uncontrolled context. So, rather than reflecting a (desired) reality that the police bureaucracy wishes to see in police leadership learning, it reflects a compromise forced by the unusual context of policing.

Findings from this study broadly support the two-part leadership development model promoted by McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010). Specifically, the rich contextual environment of policing and the key characteristics of learners were emphasised in the first part of the model. The research also supported the second part of the model involving key components of challenge, support (combined with feedback) including the key elements of (i)

leadership context combined with (ii) diverse developmental experiences shaped by challenge, feedback and support.

Therefore, this thesis has made both a theoretical and empirical contribution to the literature on police leadership development. In particular, key findings derived from this research lend support to the efficacy of the 70:20:10 learning model and McCauley, Van Velsor and Ruderman (2010) two-part leadership development model. The research also provides a rare glimpse of the under-researched landscape of leadership development in an arguably unique contextual environment in which to police, that is Australia.

The research also provides a valuable research roadmap for potential future studies in the field of police leadership development, both for practitioners and academics alike. However, because most key findings contained in this research have implications in terms of applied practice, the thesis also has potential policy impacts for senior police executives, police education and training specialists attached to "people capability" commands, together with external education and training providers, such as the AIPM. The need for a shift in approach to policy as it pertains to leadership development in policing; both implicitly and explicitly, emerged from the data. For example, the content matter experts (Study 1) asserted their jurisdictions needed to develop a coherent strategic policy. There were many examples in commissioned officer interviews (Study 3) where idiosyncratic decisions or 'captain's calls' ended up either rapidly advancing or damaging police leaders' progression, with these 'calls' rarely explained verbally let alone captured in coherent policy. The implications for motivation and morale were clear. Policy on selection, not just at the entry level needs to be made more transparent. It was evident that officers believed these individual decisions negatively impacted on their development. In addition, identified structural problems appeared amenable to policy influence—for example aspects of HR policy and procedures in

relation to access to leadership development opportunities and more generally lack of access to resources. While it is more difficult to directly alter culture through policy, some evidence however has emerged in the last decade that suggests it can be done (see Czerniewicz & Brown, 2009). Police organisations have typically 'strong' cultures (Paoline, Myers & Worden, 2000) that are resistant to change, but part of that 'strength' is drawn *from* policy. This strong culture, as has been noted throughout this thesis, is at odds with the nature of the 'business' that policing is in. Mechanistic organisational structures, where there is clear hierarchy of control and where knowledge and responsibility is focused on a narrow 'top' leadership cadre, tends to favour relatively stable 'business' conditions (Roffe, 1999). Breaking and remaking organisational structure when that structure is pinned between the uncompromising reality of crime, and strong, mechanistic internal organisational frameworks, is no easy task.

# Reference List


ABS. (2017). Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian Government. Retrieved May 5th, 2018 from: www.abs.gov.au.

Ackroyd, S., Soothill, K., Harper, R., Hughes, J. A., & Shapiro, D. (1992). New technology and practical police work: The social context of technical innovation. Taylor & Francis, Inc.

ACPO (2011). Policing professional framework: personal qualities. Retrieved from United Kingdom https://www.skillsforjustice-ppf.com/personal-qualities/.

Adams, K., & Beck, K. (2001). Critical behaviours for good police managers: Australasian Centre for Policing Research Payneham.

Adderley, R. W., & Musgrove, P. (2001). Police crime recording and investigation systems – A user's view. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(1), 100-114.

Adlam, R. (1999). We need a night shift: Notes on the failure of an educational design for police managers. Educational Action Research, 7(1), 51-62.

Adlam, R. (2000). Provision of police leadership development opportunities, Bramshill: Problem, solution and a critical engagement. International Journal of Police Science and Management, 3, 260.

Adlam, R. (2002). Governmental rationalities in police leadership: An essay exploring some of the "deep structure" in police leadership praxis. Policing & Society, 12(1), 15-36.

Adlam, R. (2003a). Nice People, Big Questions, Heritage Concepts. In R. Adlam & P. Villiers (Eds.), Police leadership in the 21st century: Philosophy, doctrine and developments (pp. 34-55). Winchester, UK: Waterside Press.

Adlam, R. (2003b). This Complex Thing, Leadership. In R. Adlam & P. Villiers (Eds.), Police leadership in the 21st century: Philosophy, doctrine and developments (pp. 204-222). Winchester, UK: Waterside Press.

AFP. (2015a). Australian Federal Police - How the 'Warwick incident' started the Commonwealth Police. Retrieved July 14, 2017 from: https://www.warwickdailynews.com.au/news/...started-commonwealth-police/2788342.

AFP. (2015b). Australian Federal Police (AFP) annual report 2015-16. Retrieved August 29, 2017 from: https://www.afp.gov.au/sites/default/files/.../Reports/afp-annual-report-2015-2016.pdf.

AFP. (2018). Australian Federal Police (AFP) - International Encyclopaedia of Uniform Insignia. Retrieved July 14, 2018, from Rank Insignia - Police & Security Web site: www.uniforminsignia.org/?option=com_insigniasearch&Itemid=53&result=805.

AGG. (2017). Australian Government Geoscience: Area of Australia - States and Territories. Retrieved November 6, 2017 from www.ga.gov.au/scientific-topics/national-location-information/dimensions/area-of-aus.

AIPM. (2018). Australian Institute of Police Management (AIPM). Retrieved May 5, 2018 from https://www.aipm.gov.au/.

Alexander, C. (1999). Police psychological burnout and trauma. Police trauma: Psychological aftermath of civilian combat, 54-64.

Alimo-Metcalfe, B., & Lawler, J. (2001). Leadership development in UK companies at the beginning of the twenty-first century: lessons for the NHS? Journal of management in medicine, 15(5), 387-404.

Allen, S. J. (2007). Adult learning theory and leadership development. Leadership Review, 7, 26-37.

Allio, R. J. (2005). Leadership development: teaching versus learning. Management Decision, 43(7/8), 1071-1077.

Alpert, G. P., & Dunham, R. G. (2004). Understanding police use of force: officers, suspects, and reciprocity. Cambridge University Press.

Alpert, G. P., & MacDonald, J. (2001). Police use of force: An analysis of organizational characteristics. Justice Quarterly, 18(2), 393-409.

Amagoh, F. (2009). Leadership development and leadership effectiveness. Management Decision, 47(6), 989-999.

Anderson, T. (1999). Every officer is a leader: Transforming leadership in police, justice, and public safety. CRC Press.

Anderson, T., Gisborne, K., & Holliday, P. (2006). Every officer is a leader: coaching leadership, learning and performance in justice, public safety, and security organizations. Trafford Publishing.

Andersson Arnten, A., Jansson, B., Olsen, K., & Archer, T. (2017). Self-reported attributes of police-chiefs compared to civil leadership: tolerance; social interest and communication. Journal of Forensic Science Criminology, 5(4), 405.

Andreescu, V., & Vito, G. F. (2010). An exploratory study on ideal leadership behaviour: the opinions of American police managers. International Journal of Police Science and Management, 12(4), 567-583.

Andreescu, V., & Vito, G. F. (2010). An exploratory study on ideal leadership behaviour: the opinions of American police managers. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 12(4), 567-583.
Angell, J. E. (1971). Toward an alternative to the classic police organizational arrangements: A democratic model. Criminology, 9(2-3), 185-206.

Anshel, M. H. (2000). A conceptual model and implications for coping with stressful events in police work. Criminal Justice and Behaviour, 27(3), 375-400.

Antonakis, J., & Day, D. (2017a). The nature of leadership: Sage publications.

Antonakis, J., & Day, D. (2017b). "Leadership: Past, Present and Future" in The Nature of Ledership (J. Antonakis & D. Day Eds. 3rd ed. ed.). California: Sage Publications.

ANZPAA. (2017). Australia New Zealand Police Professionalisation Strategy 2013 - 2018. Retrieved August, 20, 2017, from the Australian Government Web Archive site: http://webarchive.nla.gov.au/gov/*/http://www.anzpaa.org.au/about/general-publications/australia-new-zealand-police-professionalisation-strategy.

ANZPAA. (2018). The Australia New Zealand Policing Profession Framework, Retrieved August 25, 2018, from Australia and New Zealand Policing Advisory Agency Web Site: http://www.anzpaa.org.au/priorities/profession-framework.

APS, (2014).Leading and shaping a unified, high performing Australian Public Service: 2011-2012 Leadership development strategy. Retrieved from 16th September, 2017: https://www.apsc.gov.au/learning-and-development-strategy.

Ariel, B., Sutherland, A., Henstock, D., Young, J., Drover, P., Sykes, J., Henderson, R. (2016). Report: increases in police use of force in the presence of body-worn cameras are driven by officer discretion: a protocol-based subgroup analysis of ten randomized experiments. Journal of Experimental Criminology, 12(3), 453-463.

Arter, M. L. (2007). Stress and deviance in policing. Deviant Behaviour, 29(1), 43-69.

Atwater, L. E., Waldman, D. A., Atwater, D., & Cartier, P. (2000). An upward feedback field experiment: Supervisors' cynicism, reactions and commitment to subordinates. Personnel Psychology, 53(2), 275-297.

Auten, J. H. (1981). The paramilitary model of police and police professionalism. Police Studies: International Review of Police Development. 4, 67.

Avolio, B. J. (1999). Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations. CA: Sage: Thousand Oaks.

Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 16(3), 315-338.

Avolio, B. J., & Hannah, S. T. (2008). Developmental readiness: Accelerating leader development. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 60(4), 331.

Ayman, R., & Lauritsen, M. (2017). Contingencies, Context, Situation, and Leadership in The Nature of Leadership (J. D. Antonakis, D. Ed. 3rd. ed. ed.). California: Sage Publications.

Bacon, M. (2014). Police Culture and the new policing context. In M. Bacon & J. Brown (Eds.), Police culture and the new policing context (pp. 103-119). London: Routledge.

Baker, D. (2008). Paradoxes of policing and protest. Journal of Policing, Intelligence and Counter Terrorism, 3(2), 8-22.

Baker, S. D. (2007). Followership: The theoretical foundation of a contemporary construct. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 14(1), 50-60.

Baker, T. (2011). Effective police leadership: Moving beyond management: Looseleaf Law Publications.

Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. 1977. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Baron, L. (2016). Authentic leadership and mindfulness development through action learning. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 31(1), 296-311.

Barzelay, M. (2001). The new public management: Improving research and policy dialogue (Vol. 3). University of California Press.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. Public administration quarterly, 112-121.

Batts, A. W., Smoot, S. M., & Scrivner, E. M. (2012). Police leadership challenges in a changing world. New perspectives in policing, National Institute of Justice, Harvard Kennedy School, 1-20. doi:https://ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/238338.pdf.

Bayley, D. H. (1994). Police for the future. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bayley, D. H. (2002). Law enforcement and the rule of law: Is there a trade-off? Criminology & Public Policy, 2(1), 133-154.

Bayley, D. H. (2008). Police reform: Who done it? Policing & Society, 18(1), 7-17.

Bayley, D. H. (2016). The complexities of 21st century policing. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 10(3), 163-170.

Bayley, D. H., & Bittner, E. (1984). Learning the skills of policing. Law & Contemp. Probs., 47, 35.

Bayley, D. H., & Shearing, C. D. (2001). The new structure of policing: description, conceptualization and research agenda, Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.

Bazemore, G., & Griffiths, C. (2003). Police reform, restorative justice and restorative policing. Police Practice and Research, 4(4), 335-346.

Beauchemin, C., & González-Ferrer, A. (2011). Sampling international migrants with origin-based snowballing method: New evidence on biases and limitations. Demographic Research, 25, 103-134.

Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (1997). Police officers' views on cultivating organizational commitment: Implications for police managers. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 20(1), 175-195.

Beckley, R., & Birkinshaw, J. (2009). Dealing with a crisis—what the police have learnt and what others can learn from the police. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 3(1), 7-11.

Beehr, T. A., Johnson, L. B., & Nieva, R. (1995). Occupational stress: Coping of police and their spouses. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 16(1), 3-25.

Belinskaja, L., & Paulienė, R. (2012). Overview of the Current Leadership Theories: What it means to Lead? Paper presented at the 7th International Scientific Conference "Business and Management 2012", Vilnius, Lithuania.

Bellingham, T. (2000). Police culture and the need for change. The Police Journal, 73(1), 31-41.

Bennis, W. (2007). The challenges of leadership in the modern world: introduction to the special issue. American Psychologist, 62(1), 2.

Bentz, D. E. (1995). With an eye on the future. The Police Chief, 62(2), 14-17.

Berman, D. S., & Davis-Berman, J. (2005). Positive psychology and outdoor education. Journal of Experiential Education, 28(1), 17-24.

Birzer, M. L. (1999). Police training in the 21st century. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 68, 16-19.

Birzer, M. L. (2003). The theory of andragogy applied to police training. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(1), 29-42.

Birzer, M. L., & Tannehill, R. (2001). A more effective training approach for contemporary policing. Police Quarterly, 4(2), 233-252.

Bittner, E. (1970). The functions of the police in modern society. Washington D.C: US Government Printing Office.

Blackman, D. A., Johnson, S. J., Buick, F., Faifua, D. E., O'Donnell, M., & Forsythe, M. (2016). The 70: 20: 10 model for learning and development: an effective model for capability development? Paper presented at the Academy of Management Proceedings.

Blair, E. (2003). Culture & leadership. Professional Safety, 48(6), 18-22.

Block, L. A. M., & Manning, L. J. (2007). A systemic approach to developing frontline leaders in healthcare. Leadership in Health Services, 20(2), 85-96.

Bolden, R. (2006). Leadership Development in Context, Research Report 3. In. Exeter, UK: University of Exeter Centre for Leadership Studies.

Bolden, R. (2016). Leadership, management and organisational development. In Gower handbook of leadership and management development (pp. 143-158): Routledge.

Bolen, J. M. (1997). Reform in Policing: Lessons from the Whitrod era. Hawkins Press.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2017). Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership: John Wiley & Sons.

Bond, C. E., Murphy, K., & Porter, L. E. (2015). Procedural justice in policing: the first phase of an Australian longitudinal study of officer attitudes and intentions. Crime, law and social change, 64(4-5), 229-245.

Booysen, L. (2014). The development of inclusive leadership practice and processes. Diversity at work: the practice of inclusion, 296-329.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. Qualitative research journal, 9(2), 27-40.

Bowling, B. (2009). Transnational policing: the globalization thesis, a typology and a research agenda. Policing, 3(2), 149-160.

Bradford, B., & Quinton, P. (2014). Self-legitimacy, police culture and support for democratic policing in an English constabulary. British Journal of Criminology, 54(6), 1023-1046.

Bradford, D., & Pynes, J. E. (1999). Police academy training: why hasn't it kept up with practice? Police Quarterly, 2(3), 283-301.

Bradley, D. (2012). New Strategic Directions in Police Education: An Australian case study. In D. Palmer, M. M. Berlin, & D. K. Das (Eds.), Global environment of policing (pp. 265-280). CRC Press.

Brady, P. Q., & King, W. R. (2018). Brass satisfaction: Identifying the personal and work-related factors associated with job satisfaction among police chiefs. Police Quarterly, 21(2), 250-277.

Braga, A. A. (2007). Effects of hot spots policing on crime. A Campbell collaboration systematic review. Campbell Systematic Reviews.

Bragg, D. J. (2013). Vision, values and vitality: The quest to build sustainable leadership in the Queensland Police Service. Paper presented at the 8th International Symposium on Sustainable Leadership, 2013.

Brass, D. J., & Krackhardt, D. (1999). The social capital of twenty-first century leaders. Out-of-the-box leadership: Transforming the twenty-first-century army and other top-performing organizations, 179-194.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative research in psychology, 3(2), 77-101.

Brewer, J. D., Wilford, R., Guelke, A., Hume, I., & Moxon-Browne, E. (2016). The police, public order and the state: policing in Great Britain, Northern Ireland, the Irish Republic, the USA, Israel, South Africa and China. Springer.

Broderick Review (2016). Cultural Change: Gender Diversity and Inclusion in the Australian Federal Police, Elizabeth Broderick and Co. Retrieved 12th January 2018: https://www.afp.gov.au/sites/default/files/PDF/Reports/Cultural-Change-Report-2016.pdf.

Brough, P., & Frame, R. (2004). Predicting police job satisfaction and turnover intentions: The role of social support and police organisational variables. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 33(1), 8-18.

Brough, P., Drummond, S., & Biggs, A. (2018). Job support, coping, and control: Assessment of simultaneous impacts within the occupational stress process.

Brown, B. L. (1998). Applying Constructivism in Vocational and Career Education. Information Series No. 378. Retrieved 14th September, 2017 from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED428298.

Brown, J. (2007). From cult of masculinity to smart macho: gender perspectives on police occupational culture. In Police occupational culture (pp. 205-226). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Brown, J., Campbell, E. A., & Fife-Schaw, C. (1995). Adverse impacts experienced by police officers following exposure to sex discrimination and sexual harassment. Stress and Health, 11(1), 221-228.

Brown, J., Cooper, C., & Kirkcaldy, B. (1996). Occupational stress among senior police officers. British Journal of Psychology, 87(1), 31-41.

Brown, L., & Posner, B. (2001). Exploring the relationship between learning and leadership. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 22(6), 274-280.

Brungardt, C. (1997). The making of leaders: A review of the research in leadership development and education. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 3(3), 81-95.

Bryett, K., & Harrison, A. (1994). Trends and procedures in policing: an introduction to policing. Butterworths.

Bryman, A. (1999). Leadership in Organizations. In S. J. Miller, D. J. Hickson, & D. C. Wilson (Eds.), Decision Marking in Organizations. Managing organizations: Current issues (pp. 26-42): Sage.

Bryman, A. (2003). Research methods and organization studies (Vol. 20): Routledge.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). Business research methods: Oxford University Press, USA.

Bryman, A., Stephens, M., & aCampo, C. (1996). The importance of context: Qualitative research and the study of leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 7(3), 353-370.

Bullock, K., & Tilley, N. (2009). Evidence-based policing and crime reduction. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 3(4), 381-387.

Bumgarner, J. (2002). An assessment of the perceptions of policing as a profession among two-year and four-year criminal justice and law enforcement students. Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 13(2), 313-334.

Burgess, M., Fleming, J., & Marks, M. (2006). Thinking critically about police unions in Australia: Internal democracy and external responsiveness. Police Practice and Research, 7(5), 391-409.

Burgoyne, J. G., & Turnbull James, K. (2001). Leadership Development: Best Practice Guide for Organisations. London: Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership.

Burke, R. J. (1989). Career stages, satisfaction, and well-being among police officers. Psychological Reports, 65(1), 3-12.

Burke, R. J., & Mikkelsen, A. (2006). Burnout among Norwegian police officers: Potential antecedents and consequences. International Journal of Stress Management, 13(1), 64.

Burston, A. (2016). An introduction to mentoring. AusIMM, Bulletin (Dec 2016), 18.

Bush, T., & Glover, D. (2004). Leadership development: evidence and beliefs. doi:http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/5094/1/leadership-development-evidence-and-beliefs.pdf.

Bush, T., & Jackson, D. (2002). A preparation for school leadership international perspectives. Educational Management Administration & Leadership, 30(4), 417-429.

Butler, L. C. (2017). The Impact Of Telemedicine On Teamwork And Communication, Workload, And Clinical Performance: A Randomized Controlled Trial. Retrieved on 14th February 2018 from https://elischolar.library.yale.edu/ymtdl/2112/.

Butterfield, R., Edwards, C., & Woodall, J. (2004). The new public management and the UK police service: The role of the police sergeant in the implementation of performance management. Public Management Review, 6(3), 395-415.

Butterfield, R., Edwards, C., & Woodall, J. (2005). The new public management and managerial roles: the case of the police sergeant. British Journal of Management, 16(4), 329-341.

Cacioppe, R. (1998a). An integrated model and approach for the design of effective leadership development programs. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 19(1), 44-53.

Cacioppe, R. (1998b). Leaders developing leaders: an effective way to enhance leadership development programs. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 19(4), 194-198.

Caless, B. (2011). Policing at the top: the roles, values and attitudes of chief police officers. The Policy Press.

Caless, B., & Tong, S. (2015). Leading policing in Europe: An empirical study of strategic police leadership. Bristol: Policy Press.

Caless, B., & Tong, S. (2017). Leading policing in Europe: An empirical study of strategic police leadership: Policy Press.

Campbell, B. (2011). Sergeants as leaders: a case study of transformational leadership among first-line supervisors in the police department. (Education Doctoral), St. John Fisher College.

Campbell, D. J., Dardis, G., & Campbell, K. M. (2003). Enhancing incremental influence: a focused approach to leadership development. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 10(1), 29-44.

Campbell, I., & Kodz, J. (2011). What makes great police leadership? What research can tell us about the effectiveness of different leadership styles, competencies and behaviours. A Rapid Evidence Review. London: National Policing Improvement Agency.

Campbell, I., Stewart, F., & Kodz, J. (2011). Preparing for ACPO: Exploratory interview research on developing skills for chief police officer roles. Retrieved on 22nd October, 2017 from http://whatworks.college.police.uk/Research/Documents/Preparing_for_ACPO_0912.pdf.

Campbell, M. (2009). Learning in early-career police: Coming into the workplace. Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education, 10(1), 19-28.

Carson, J. B., Tesluk, P. E., & Marrone, J. A. (2007). Shared leadership in teams: An investigation of antecedent conditions and performance. Academy of Management Journal, 50(5), 1217-1234.

Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. The Leadership Quarterly, 21(3), 543-562.

Carter, D., & Sapp, A. D. (1994). Issues and perspectives of law enforcement accreditation: A national study of police chiefs. Journal of Criminal Justice, 22(3), 195-204.

Carter, L., Ulrich, D., & Goldsmith, M. (2004). Best practices in leadership development and organization change: How the best companies ensure meaningful change and sustainable leadership: John Wiley & Sons.

Carter, R. J. H. (2013). Investigating the role of a manager as a facilitator of ongoing informal work related learning. Retrieved on 14th January 2017 from https://opus.lib.uts.edu.au/bitstream/10453/24101/2/02whole.pdf.

Casey, J., & Mitchell, M. (2007). Requirements of police managers and leaders from sergeant to commissioner. Police leadership and management. The Federation Press, Annandale, 4-20.

Cavana, R., Delahaye, B., & Sekaran, U. (2000). Research methods for business. New York: John Wiley & Sons. In.

Chan, J. (1996). Changing police culture. British Journal of Criminology, 36(1), 109-134.

Chan, J. (1997). Changing police culture: Policing in a multicultural society. Cambridge University Press.

Chan, J. (2001). The technological game: How information technology is transforming police practice. Criminology and Criminal Justice, 1(2), 139-159.

Chan, J., & Dixon, D. (2007). The politics of police reform ten years after the Royal Commission into the New South Wales Police Service. Criminology and Criminal Justice, 7(4), 443-468.

Chan, J., Devery, C., & Doran, S. (2003). Fair cop: Learning the art of policing: University of Toronto Press.

Chan, S. (2010). Applications of andragogy in multi-disciplined teaching and learning. Journal of adult education, 39(2), 25-35.

Chaney, M. A. (2008). Guidance from a mentor helps avoid the pitfalls of many chiefs. The Police Chief, 75(1). 42.

Charles, M. T. (1991). Resolving discrimination in the promotion of Fort Wayne police officers. American Journal of Police, 10(1), 67.

Charlesworth, S., & Robertson, D. (2012). Policing, gender, and working time: an Australian case study. Police Practice and Research, 13(3), 241-253.

Cheung, F. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2010). Women at the top: Powerful leaders define success as work+family in a culture of gender. American Psychologist, 65(3), 182.

Choi, D., Oh, I.-S., & Colbert, A. E. (2015). Understanding organizational commitment: a meta-analytic examination of the roles of the five-factor model of personality and culture. Journal of Applied Psychology, 100(5), 1542.

Cioccarelli, P. (1989). Police education training. National Police Research Unit Review, 5, 33-45.

Clamp, K., & Paterson, C. (2016). Restorative Policing: Concepts, theory and practice: Routledge.

Clapham, S. L. (2018). Police middle management leadership: A case of arrested development? Doctoral dissertation. University of Southampton.

Clark, M. (2005). The importance of a new philosophy to the post modern policing environment. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 28(4), 642-653.

Clarke, V., Braun, V., & Hayfield, N. (2015). "Thematic Analysis" in Smith J,A. (Ed.). Qualitative psychology: a practical guide to research methods. In (pp. 222-247): Londonage Publications Ltd.

Cochran, J. K., & Bromley, M. L. (2003). The myth (?) of the police sub-culture. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(1), 88-117.

Cockcroft, T. (2014). Police culture and transformational leadership: outlining the contours of a troubled relationship. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 8(1), 5-13.

Coleman, T. (2008). Managing strategic knowledge in policing: do police leaders have sufficient knowledge about organisational performance to make informed strategic decisions? Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 9(4), 307-322.

College of Policing (2015) Leadership Review: Interim Report. UK Police, March 15th. Retrieved from United Kingdom: http://www.college.police.uk/What-we-do/Development/Promotion/the-leadership-review/Documents/CoP_Leadership_Review_Interim_report.pdf.

College of Policing (2016). Competency and values framework for policing. Retrieved from United Kingdom: https://skillsforjustice-ppf.com/competency-values/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Competency-and-Values-Framework-for-Policing_4.11.16.pdf.

College of Policing (2018). College of Policing. Retrieved from http://www.college.police.uk/What-we-do/Learning/Professional-Training/Leadership-Development/Pages/Leadership-Programme.aspx accessed on 3/5/18.

Conger, J., & Benjamin, B. (1999). Building leaders: How successful companies develop the next generation. Jossey-Bass San Francisco.

Conger, J., & Fulmer, R. M. (2003). Developing your leadership pipeline. Harvard business review, 81(12), 76-85.

Conlon, T. J. (2004). A review of informal learning literature, theory and implications for practice in developing global professional competence. Journal of European Industrial Training, 28(2/3/4), 283-295.

Cooper, S. J. (2018). Holding the police to account: a critical analysis of the structures of police accountability and the introduction and operation of police and crime commissioners. Doctoral Dissertation, Retrieved on 22nd August, 2018 from http://repository.essex.ac.uk/21269/.

Cope, N. (2004). “Intelligence led policing or policing led intelligence?” Integrating volume crime analysis into policing. British Journal of Criminology, 44(2), 188-203.

Cordner, G. W. (1978). Open and closed models of police organizations: Traditions, dilemmas, and practical considerations. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 6(1), 22-34.

Cordner, G. W. (2014). Community policing. The Oxford handbook of police and policing, 148-171.

Cordner, G. W., & Cordner, A. (2011). Stuck on a plateau? Obstacles to recruitment, selection, and retention of women police. Police Quarterly, 14(3), 207-226.

Correia, M. E. (2000). The conceptual ambiguity of community in community policing– Filtering the muddy waters. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 23(2), 218-233.

Costello, A. B., & Osborne, J. W. (2005). Best practices in exploratory factor analysis: Four recommendations for getting the most from your analysis. Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 10(7), 1-9.

Coudert, F., Butin, D., & Le Métayer, D. (2015). Body-worn cameras for police accountability: Opportunities and risks. Computer law & security review, 31(6), 749-762.

Council of Canadian Academies (2014). Policing Canada in the 21st Century: New policing for new challenges. Ottawa (ON): The expert panel on the future of Canadian policing models, Council of Canadian Academies. Retrieved from Ottawa, Canada: http://www.scienceadvice.ca/uploads/eng/assessments%20and%20publications%20and%20news%20releases/policing/policing_fullreporten.pdf.

Cowper, T. J. (2000). The myth of the "military model" of leadership in law enforcement. Police Quarterly, 3(3), 228-246.

Cox, D. (2011). Educating police for uncertain times: the Australian experience and the case for a "normative" approach. Journal of Policing, Intelligence and Counter Terrorism, 6(1), 3-22.

Cox, S., Marchionna, S., & Fitch, B. D. (2015). Introduction to policing: Sage Publications.

Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. F. (1992). A template approach to text analysis: developing and using codebooks. http://psycnet.apa.org/record/1992-97742-005.

Crabtree, B. F., & Miller, W. L. (1999). Doing qualitative research. Sage Publications.

Crank, J. P. (1998). Understanding police culture. London: Routledge.

Crank, J. P. (2014). Understanding police culture (2nd. ed.). London: Routledge.

Creswell, J. (2009). Mapping the field of mixed methods research. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). Designing and conducting mixed methods research: Wiley Online Library.

Crook, C., & Garratt, D. (2005). The positivist paradigm in contemporary social science research. Research methods in the social sciences, 207-214.

Currie, D., DeKeseredy, W., & MacLean, B. (1990). Reconstituting social order and social control: Police accountability in Canada. The Journal of Human Justice, 2(1), 29-53.

Currie, G., Lockett, A., & Suhomlinova, O. (2009). The institutionalization of distributed leadership: A 'Catch-22'in English public services. Human Relations, 62(11), 1735-1761.

Czerniewicz, L., & Brown, C. (2009). A study of the relationship between institutional policy, organisational culture and e-learning use in four South African universities. Computers & Education, 53(1), 121-131.

Dalakoura, A. (2010). Differentiating leader and leadership development: A collective framework for leadership development. Journal of Management Development, 29(5), 432-441.

Dantzker, M. L. (1996). Position of Municipal Police Chief: An Examination of Selection Criteria and Requisite Skills, The. Police Studies, 19(1), 1-17.

Dantzker, M. L. (2000). Understanding today's police. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Das, D. (1986). Military models of policing: comparative impressions. Canadian Police College Journal, 10(4), 267-285.

Davey, J. D., Obst, P. L., & Sheehan, M. C. (2001). Demographic and workplace characteristics which add to the prediction of stress and job satisfaction within the police workplace. Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology, 16(1), 29-39.

Davidson, A. C., & Mellor, D. J. (2001). The adjustment of children of Australian Vietnam veterans: is there evidence for the trans-generational transmission of the effects of war-related trauma? Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 35(3), 345-351.

Davies, A. (2000). Change in the UK police service: the costs and dilemmas of restructured managerial roles and identities. Journal of Change Management, 1(1), 41-58.

Davies, A., & Thomas, R. (2003). Talking cop: discourses of change and policing identities. Public Administration, 81(4), 681-699.

Davis, C. (2017). Police leadership: an exploratory study of the perceptions of police officers. Unpublished PhD., Nottingham Trent University.

Davis, C., & Bailey, D. (2018). Police leadership: the challenges for developing contemporary practice. International Journal of Emergency Services, 7(1), 13-23.

Day, C. (2000). Beyond Transformational Leadership. Educational leadership, 57(7), 56-59.

Day, D. (2001). Leadership Development: A Review in Context. The Leadership Quarterly, 11(4), 581 - 613.

Day, D. (2011). Leadership development. The SAGE handbook of leadership, 37-50.

Day, D. V., & Dragoni, L. (2015). Leadership development: An outcome-oriented review based on time and levels of analyses. Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2(1), 133-156.

Day, D., & Haipin, S. M. (2001). Leadership development: A review of industry best practices. Alexandria: Army Research Institute for the Behavioural and Social Sciences. Fort Leavenworth, KS. Retrieved from https://apps.dtic.mil/docs/citations/ADA391440.

Day, D., & Thornton, A. (2017). 'The Nature of Leadership Development' in The Nature of Leadership (J. D. Antonakis, D. Ed. 3rd. ed. ed.). California: Sage Publications.

Day, D., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2004). Towards a Science of Leader Development. In D. V. Day, S. J. Zaccaro, & S. M. Halpin (Eds.), Leader development for transforming organizations: Growing leaders for tomorrow (pp. 383-414). New York: Psychology Press.

Day, D., Fleenor, J. W., Atwater, L. E., Sturm, R. E., & McKee, R. A. (2014). Advances in leader and leadership development: A review of 25 years of research and theory. The Leadership Quarterly, 25(1), 63-82.

Day, D., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. (2009). An integrative approach to leader development. New York, NY: Psychology Press.Physicians' Perceptions of Institutional and Leadership Factors Influencing Their Job Satisfaction at One Academic Medical Center.Academic Medicine, 77(12), 1235-1240.

Day, D., Zaccaro, S. J., & Halpin, S. M. (2004). Leader development for transforming organizations: Growing leaders for tomorrow: Psychology Press.

de Roever, J. J. C. (2012). The effectiveness of frontline management: The impact of transformational leadership and integrity. Unpublished Master's Thesis, School of Criminology and Criminal Justice, Griffith University, Brisbane.

Deakin, T. J. (1988). Police professionalism: The renaissance of American law enforcement. CC Thomas Springfield, Ill.

Deluga, R. J., & Souza, J. (1991). The effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on the influencing behaviour of subordinate police officers. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 64(1), 49-55.

Dempsey, J., & Forst, L. (2011). An introduction to policing. Cengage Learning.

Denhardt, R. B., Denhardt, J. V., & Aristigueta, M. P. (2012). Managing human behaviour in public and nonprofit organizations: Sage.

Densten, I. L. (1999). Senior Australian law enforcement leadership under examination. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 22(1), 45-57.

Densten, I. L. (2002). Clarifying inspirational motivation and its relationship to extra effort. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 23(1), 40-44.

Densten, I. L. (2003). Senior police leadership: does rank matter? Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(3), 400-418.

Densten, I. L. (2005). The relationship between visioning behaviours of leaders and follower burnout. British Journal of Management, 16(2), 105-118.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). The research act: A theoretical orientation to sociological methods. In: New York: McGraw-Hill.

DeRue, D. S., & Myers, C. G. (2014). Leadership Development: A Review and Agenda for Future Research. Journal of Selection and Assessment, 6(1), 35-44.

DeRue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Hollenbeck, J. R., & Workman, K. (2012). A quasi-experimental study of after-event reviews and leadership development. Journal of Applied Psychology, 97(5), 997.

Devine, J. A. (2012). Case-study-driven leadership training from West Point. Public Manager, 41(4), 25.

Devitt, K. R., & Borodzicz, E. P. (2008). Interwoven Leadership: The missing link in multi-agency major incident response. Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, 16(4), 208-216.

Dewey, J. (1938). The theory of inquiry. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Wiston.

Di Grazia, R. J. (1976). Upgrading Police Leadership. Police Journal, 49, 150.

Dick, G. (2010). Can the organisation and supervision environment influence both bullying and organisational commitment? Evidence from a police force survey. University of Kent, Kent Business School.

Dick, G. (2011). The influence of managerial and job variables on organizational commitment in the police. Public Administration, 89(2), 557-576.

Dick, P., & Jankowicz, D. (2001). A social constructionist account of police culture and its influence on the representation and progression of female officers: A repertory grid analysis in a UK police force. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(2), 181-199.

Dobby, J., Anscombe, J., & Tuffin, R. (2004). Police leadership: expectations and impact. Home Office London.

Dotlich, D. L., & Noel, J. L. (1998). Action learning: How the world's top companies are re-creating their leaders and themselves. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Incorporated.

DPEM. (2010). Department of Police and Emergency Management (DPEM). Tasmania Police Manual. Orders, instructions and operational guidance for members.

DPFEM. (2016). Department of Police, Fire and Emergency Management Annual Report - Tasmania Police. Retrieved September 9, 2017 from https://www.police.tas.gov.au/about-us/corporate-documents/annual-report.

Drodge, E. N., & Murphy, S. A. (2002). Interrogating emotions in police leadership. Human Resource Development Review, 1(4), 420-438.

Drodge, E. N., & Murphy, S. A. (2002a). Police leadership as a transformational social process. International Journal of Police Science and Management, 4, 198.

Drodge, E. N., & Murphy, S. A. (2002b). Police leadership development: building a conceptual framework. Gazette, 64, 4, 35-39.

Dunham, R. G., & Alpert, G. P. (2010). The foundation of the police role in society. Critical issues in policing, contemporary readings, 3-16.

Dupont, B., Manning, P. K., & Whelan, C. (2017). Introduction for special issue policing across organisational boundaries: developments in theory and practice. Retrieved on 28th March, 2018 from: https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/10439463.2017.1356300.

Edwards, G., Elliott, C., Iszatt-White, M., & Schedlitzki, D. (2013). Critical and alternative approaches to leadership learning and development. Management Learning, 44(1), 3-10.

Eid, J., Johnsen, B. H., Bartone, P. T., & Nissestad, O. A. (2008). Growing transformational leaders: exploring the role of personality hardiness. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 29(1), 4-23.

Engel, R. S. (2001). Supervisory styles of patrol sergeants and lieutenants. Journal of Criminal Justice, 29(4), 341-355.

Enter, J. E. (1991). Police administration in the future: Demographic influences as they relate to management of the internal and external environment. American Journal of Police, 10, 65.

Epitropaki, O., Kark, R., Mainemelis, C., & Lord, R. G. (2017). Leadership and followership identity processes: A multilevel review. The Leadership Quarterly, 28(1), 104-129.

Ericsson, K. A. (2009). Enhancing the development of professional performance: Implications from the study of deliberate practice. In K. A. Ericsson (Ed.), Development of professional expertise: Toward measurement of expert performance and design of optimal learning (pp. 405-431). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University.

Etter, B. (1993). Future directions of policing in Australia. Australian Police Journal, 47(1), 43-54.

Etter, B. (2010). The MasterChef Phenomenon – a new style of leadership for policing? Australasian Policing, 2(2), 10-16.

Evans, B., & Coman, G. J. (1993). General versus specific measures of occupational stress: An Australian police survey. Stress Medicine, 9(1), 11-20.

Evans, R. (2010). Unusual industrial organisations: Police unions, Fitzgerald and reform. In C. Lewis, J. Ransley, & R. Homel (Eds.), The Fitzgerald Legacy: Reforming public life in Australia and beyond (pp. 154 - 169). Bowen Hills, Australia. Australian Academic Press.

Farr, J. V., & Brazil, D. M. (2009). Leadership skills development for engineers. Engineering Management Journal, 21(1), 3-8.

Farrell, G., & Sousa, W. (2001). Repeat victimization and hot spots: the overlap and its implications for crime control and problem-orientated policing.

Felkenes, G. T. (1980). Accreditation: Is it necessary? Yes! Journal of Criminal Justice, 8(2), 77-87.

Fiedler, F. E. (1996). Research on leadership selection and training: One view of the future. Administrative Science Quarterly, 241-250.

Fielding, N. (1994). Cop canteen culture. In Boys just doing Business, Fielding, N., Newburn, T., & Stanko, E. A. (Eds.) 46 – 63. Routledge.

Filstad, C., Karp, T. & Glomseth, R. (2018). How police leaders learn to lead. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice. doi: 10.1093/police/pay043.

Finnane, M. (1990). Police corruption and police reform: The Fitzgerald inquiry in Queensland, Australia. Policing and Society: An International Journal, 1(2), 159-171.

Fisher, A., Weir, D., & Phillips, J. (2014). Beyond transactional and transformational leadership into the double helix: a case study of blended leadership in police work. Review of Enterprise and Management Studies, 1(2), 16-28.

Fisk, C. L., & Richardson, L. S. (2017). Police unions. George Washington Law Review. 85, 712 -799.

Fitria, H., Mukhtar, M., & Akbar, M. (2017). The Effect Of Organizational Structure and Leadership Style On Teacher Performance In Private Secondary School. IJHCM International Journal of Human Capital Management, 1(02), 101-112.

Fitzgerald, G. E. (1989). Report of a Commission of Inquiry into Possible Illegal Activities and Associated Police Misconduct. Brisbane, Australia.

Fleming, J. (1995). Shifting the emphasis: The impact of police unionism in Queensland: 1915-1925. Labour History (68), 98-114.

Fleming, J. (2004). Commissioner Mick Keelty, Australian Federal Police. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 5(4-5), 317-326.

Fleming, J. (2010). Changing the Approach: Structure Reform in the Queensland Police Force. In C. Lewis, J. Ransley, & R. Homel (Eds.), Fitzgerald Legacy: Reforming Public Life in Australia and Beyond (pp. 118-133): Australian Academic Press.

Fleming, J., & Hall, R. (2008). Police leadership in Australia: managing networks. In P. t. Hart & J. Uhr (Eds.), Public leadership (pp. 165-176). Canberra: ANU E Press.

Fleming, J., & Lafferty, G. (2000). New management techniques and restructuring for accountability in Australian police organisations. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 23(2), 154-168.

Fleming, J., & Lafferty, G. (2001). Police unions, industrial strategies and political influence: some recent history. International Journal of Employment Studies, 9(2), 131.

Fleming, J., & O'Reilly, J. (2007). The 'small-scale initiative'; the rhetoric and the reality of community policing in Australia. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 1(2), 214-222.

Fleming, J., & Rhodes, R. (2004, September). It's situational: the dilemmas of police governance in the 21st century. In Australasian Political Studies Association Conference University of Adelaide. 2, 5-6.

Fleming, J., & Rhodes, R. A. W. (2005). Bureaucracy, contracts and networks: the unholy trinity and the police. Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology, 38(2), 192-205.

Fletcher, J. K., & Kaufer, K. (2003). Shared leadership: Paradox and Possibility. In Shared leadership: Reframing the how's and whys of leadership, Pearce, C., & Conger, J. (Eds.) 21-47. Sage Publications.

Flynn, E. A., & Herrington, V. (2015). Toward a Profession of Police Leadership. In New Perspectives in Policing Bulletin (Vol. NCJ248573, pp. 1-20). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice.

Ford, J. K. (2007). Building capability throughout a change effort: leading the transformation of a police agency to community policing. American Journal of Community Psychology, 39(3-4), 321-334.

Ford, J. K., & Weissbein, D. A. (1997). Transfer of training: An updated review and analysis. Performance Improvement Quarterly, 10(2), 22-41.

Frawley, S., Favaloro, D., & Schulenkorf, N. (2018). Experience-Based Leadership Development and Professional Sport Organizations. Journal of Sport Management, 32(2), 123-134.

Friedmann, R. R. (1992). Community policing: Comparative perspectives and prospects. St Martin's Press, New York.

Fulmer, R. M. (1997). The evolving paradigm of leadership development. Organizational dynamics, 25(4), 59-72.

Fulmer, R. M., & Goldsmith, M. (2001). The leadership investment: How the world's best organizations gain strategic advantage through leadership development: AMACOM a division of American Management Association.

Fyfe, J. (1996). Training to reduce police-civilian violence. In: Police violence: Understanding and controlling police abuse of force, Geller, W., & Toch, H. (Eds.) 165-179.

Fyfe, J. (1998). In defense of police agency accreditation. Policing, 21, 192-201.

Fyfe, J., Greene, J. R., Walsh, W. F., Wilson, O. W., & McLaren, R. C. (1997). Police administration. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Garbarino, S., Cuomo, G., Chiorri, C., & Magnavita, N. (2013). Association of work-related stress with mental health problems in a special police force unit. BMJ Open, 3(7), https://bmjopen.bmj.com/content/3/7/e002791.short.

Gardner, G. (1978). Social surveys for social planners: Open University Press.

Garner, G. (2018). Common sense police supervision: practical tips for the first-line leader; 6th Ed., Charles C Thomas Publisher.

Garner, R. (2017). Effective Leadership In Law Enforcement: Current And Past Police Chief Perspectives. Applied Psychology in Criminal Justice, 13(2), 170-179.

Gaston, A. (1997). Recognizing potential law enforcement executives: Part III in a series on leadership. Corrections Today, 59(3), 106-108.

Gaston, K., & King, L. (1995). Management development and training in the police: a survey of the promotion process. Journal of European Industrial Training, 19(7), 20-25.

Gau, J. M., Terrill, W., & Paoline III, E. A. (2013). Looking up: Explaining police promotional aspirations. Criminal Justice and Behaviour, 40(3), 247-269.

Gaunt, R. A. (2014). Peel, Robert and the Metropolitan Police. The Encyclopedia of Criminology and Criminal Justice, January, 6. 1-4.

Giber, D., Carter, L., & Goldsmith, M. (2000). Linkage Inc.'s best practices in leadership development handbook: Case studies, instruments, training. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Pfieffer.

Giber, D., Lam, S. M., Goldsmith, M., & Bourke, J. (2009). Linkage Inc's Best Practices in Leadership Development Handbook: Case Studies, Instruments, Training (Vol. 319): John Wiley & Sons.

Gibson, A., & Villiers, P. (2006). Leading for those we serve–the police leadership qualities framework. Bramshill: Centrex Leadership Academy. Hampshire, UK.

Girodo, M. (1998). Machiavellian, bureaucratic and transformational leadership styles in police managers: Preliminary findings of interpersonal ethics. Perceptual and motor skills, 86(2), 419-427.

Goffee, R., & Scase, R. (2015). Corporate Realities (Routledge Revivals): The Dynamics of Large and Small Organisations: Routledge.

Goh, S. (2008). A new paradigm for professional development framework and curriculum renewal in engineering management education: a proposal for reform. Paper presented at the 19th Annual Conference of the Australasian Association for Engineering Education: To Industry and Beyond: Proceedings of the. Barton, A.C.T.: Institution of Engineers, Australia.

Golding, B., & Savage, S. P. (2011). Leadership and performance management. In T. Newburn (Ed.), Handbook of Policing (Vol. 2, pp. 725-759). Routledge.
Goldsmith, A. (1990). Taking police culture seriously: Police discretion and the limits of law. Policing and Society: An International Journal, 1(2), 91-114.

Goldsmith, A. (2001). The pursuit of police integrity: Leadership and governance dimensions. Current Issues Criminal Justice, 13, 185.

Goldsmith, A. (2005). Police reform and the problem of trust. Theoretical Criminology, 9(4), 443-470.

Goldstein, H. (1977). Policing a free society. In (Volume: University of Wisconsin Legal Studies Research Paper No. 1349). Cambridge, Mass: Ballinger Publishing Company.

Goldstein, H. (1990). Excellence in problem-oriented policing. New York, NY.

Gradney, J. (2008). Leadership development: an assessment of the aspiring leaders program at the Texas commission on environmental quality. Applied Research Projects. Paper 269. http://ecommons.txstate.edu/arp/269.

Grafton, J., Lillis, A. M., & Mahama, H. (2011). Mixed methods research in accounting. Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management, 8(1), 5-21.

Grant, J. D., & Toch, H. (1991). Police as problem solvers. Springer Science & Business Media.

Graves, W. (1996). Police cynicism: causes and cures. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 65(6), 16-20.

Gray, C., & Bishop, Q. (2009). Leadership development. Journal of Staff Development, 30(1), 28-33.

Green, T., & Gates, A. (2014). Understanding the process of professionalisation in the police organisation. The Police Journal, 87(2), 75-91.

Greene, J. R. (2000). Community policing in America: Changing the nature, structure, and function of the police. Criminal justice, 3(3), 299-370.

Greene, J. R., & Mastrofski, S. D. (1988). Community policing: rhetoric or reality. New York: Praeger.

Griffin, N. C. (1998). The five I's of police professionalism: A model for front-line leadership. Police Chief, 65, 24-31.

Griffiths, P., & Allen, B. (1987). Assessment centres: breaking with tradition. Journal of Management Development, 6(1), 18-29.

Gronn, P. (2011). Hybrid configurations of leadership. The SAGE handbook of leadership, 437-454.

Groves, K. S. (2006). Leader emotional expressivity, visionary leadership, and organizational change. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27(7), 566-583.

Groves, K. S. (2007). Integrating leadership development and succession planning best practices. Journal of Management Development, 26(3), 239-260.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. Handbook of qualitative research, 2(163-194), 105.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K. M., & Namey, E. E. (2012). Validity and reliability (credibility and dependability) in qualitative research and data analysis. Applied thematic analysis, 79-106. London: Sage Publications.

Guyot, D. (1979). Bending granite: attempts to change the rank structure of American police departments. Journal of Police Science and Administration, 7(3), 253-284.

Haake, U. (2018). Conditions for gender equality in police leadership–making way for senior police women. Police Practice and Research, 19(3), 241-252.

Haake, U., Rantatalo, O., & Lindberg, O. (2017). Police leaders make poor change agents: leadership practice in the face of a major organisational reform. Policing and Society, 27(7), 764-778.

Haarr, R. N. (2005). Factors affecting the decision of police recruits to “drop out” of police work. Police Quarterly, 8(4), 431-453.

Haberfeld, M. R. (2006). Police leadership. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Hafner, M. R. (2003). Changing organizational culture to adapt to a community policing philosophy. FBI L. Enforcement Bulletin, 72, 6.

Hahn Fox, B., & Jennings, W. G. (2014). How to Write a Methodology and Results Section for Empirical Research. Journal of Criminal Justice Education, 1-20.

Halbert, K. (2014). Flexible supervision. A Leadership White Paper, Bryan Police Department, Texas, Retrieved from Bryan shsu-ir.tdl.org.

Hamilton, F., & Bean, C. J. (2005). The importance of context, beliefs and values in leadership development. Business Ethics: A European Review, 14(4), 336-347.

Hansson, J., Hurtig, A.-K., Lauritz, L.-E., & Padyab, M. (2017). Swedish police officers’ job strain, work-related social support and general mental health. Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology, 32(2), 128-137.

Harrington, P. E. (2003). Advice to women beginning a career in policing. Women & Criminal Justice, 14(1), 1-13.

Hartley, J., & Hinksman, B. (2003). Leadership Development: a systematic review of the literature–a report for the NHS Leadership Centre15(Journal, Electronic), 13/18/2014. 1-78. Retrieved from doi:http://www.nursingleadership.org.uk/publications/Systematic.

Hays, K. L., Regoli, R. M., & Hewitt, J. D. (2007). Police chiefs, anomia, and leadership. Police Quarterly, 10(1), 3-22.

Hayward, S. (2011). Connecting leadership development to bottom line benefits. Strategic HR Review, 10(1), 28-34.

Heifetz, R., & Linsky, M. (2017). Leadership on the line, with a new preface: Staying alive through the dangers of change. Harvard Business Press.

Henry, V. E. (1995). The police officer as survivor: Death confrontations and the police subculture. Behavioural Sciences & The Law, 13(1), 93-112.

Hepworth, D. P., & White, D. R. (2016). Assessing the use of a traffic enforcement unit. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 39(1), 95-108.

Herbert, S. (1996). Morality in law enforcement: Chasing "Bad Guys" with the Los Angeles Police Department. Law and Society Review, 799-818.

Hermelin, E., Lievens, F., & Robertson, I. T. (2007). The validity of assessment centres for the prediction of supervisory performance ratings: A meta-analysis. International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 15(4), 405-411.

Hernez-Broome, G., & Hughes, R. L. (2004). Leadership development: Past, Present, and Future. Human Resource Planning, 27(1), 24-32.

Herrington, V. (2017). Assessing the impact of public safety leader development in Australasia. Policing and Society, 27(8), 817-831.

Herrington, V., & Colvin, A. (2015). Police leadership for complex times. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 10(1), 7-16.

Herrington, V., & Pope, R. (2014). The impact of police training in mental health: an example from Australia. Policing and Society, 24(5), 501-522.

Herrington, V., (2014) Return on Investment from Public Safety Leadership Education: An Impact Evaluation of the AIPM Graduate Programs, The Australian Institute of Police Management, Manly, Sydney. Retrieved 15th December, 2017 from https://www.aipm.gov.au/explore/research/research-publications.

Hesketh, I., Cooper, C., & Ivy, J. (2018). Leading the asset: Resilience training efficacy in UK policing. The Police Journal, https://doi.org/10.1177/0032258X18763101.

Hess, K. M., Orthmann, C. H., & LaDue, S. E. (2015). Management and supervision in law enforcement. Cengage Learning.

Hezlett, S. A. (2016). Enhancing experience-driven leadership development. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 18(3), 369-389.

Hodgson, J. F. (2001). Police violence in Canada and the USA: Analysis and management. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(4), 520-551.

Hoggett, J., Redford, P., Toher, D., & White, P. (2018). Challenges for police leadership: Identity, experience, legitimacy and direct entry. Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology, 1-11.

Hooijberg, R., Hunt, J. G. J., & Dodge, G. E. (1997). Leadership complexity and development of the leaderplex model. Journal of Management, 23(3), 375-408.

Hoque, Z., Arends, S., & Alexander, R. (2004). Policing the police service: A case study of the rise of "new public management" within an Australian police service. Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 17(1), 59-84.

Horner, M. (1997). Leadership theory: past, present and future. Team Performance Management, 3(4), 270-287.

Hough, M. (2010). Policing, New public management and legitimacy. In S. Brookes & K. Grint (Eds.), The new public leadership challenge (pp. 70-84). Springer.

House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? Journal of Management, 23(3), 409-473.

Huberts, L. L., Kaptein, M. M., & Lasthuizen, K. K. (2007). A study of the impact of three leadership styles on integrity violations committed by police officers. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 30(4), 587-607.

Hudson. (2014). Trends in police education and training, nationally and internationally: prepared for Public Safety Business Agency (PSBA), as part of the Education and Training Review across the Queensland Police Service (QPS). (Unpublished report). Retrieved from www.hudson.com.

Hunt, J. G., & Dodge, G. E. (2001). Leadership déjà vu all over again. The Leadership Quarterly, 11(4), 435-458.

Ilgen, D. R., & Pulakos, E. D. (1999). The Changing Nature of Performance: Implications for Staffing, Motivation, and Development. Frontiers of Industrial and Organizational Psychology: ERIC.

Inzer, L. D., & Crawford, C. (2005). A review of formal and informal mentoring: Processes, problems, and design. Journal of Leadership Education, 4(1), 31-50.

Isenberg, J. (2009). Police leadership in a democracy: conversations with America's police chiefs. CRC Press.

Jackson, A., & Lapsley, I. (2003). The diffusion of accounting practices in the new "managerial" public sector. International Journal of Public Sector Management, 16(5), 359-372.

Jackson, B. (2015). Strengthening trust between police and the public in an era of increasing transparency. RAND Corporation.

Jackson, B., & Jones, O. S. (2018). Promoting better public services leadership: An appreciative critique. Policy Quarterly, 8(3).

Jacobs, L. C., Irvine, C. K. S., & Walker, D. (2018). Introduction to research in education. Cengage Learning.

Jacobs, R., Cushenbery, L., & Grabarek, P. (2011). Assessments for selection and promotion of police officers. Handbook of police psychology, 193-210.

James, K. T. (2011). Leadership in context lessons from new leadership theory and current leadership development practice. Commission on Leadership and Management in the NHS. The King's Fund. doi:http://www.kingsfund.org.uk/sites/files/kf/leadership-in-context-theory-current-leadership-development-practice-kim-turnbull-james-kings-fund-may-2011.pdf.

James, S., & Warren, I. (1995). Police culture. Journal of Australian Studies, 19(43), 3-15.

Janik, J., & Kravitz, H. M. (1994). Linking work and domestic problems with police suicide. Suicide and Life Threatening Behaviour, 24(3), 267-274.

Jarvis, P. (2011). Professional development amongst other ranks: Barriers to the concept of lifelong learning. Australasian Policing, 3(1), 2.

Jennings, C., & Wargnier, J. (2012). Effective Learning with 70:20:10. The new frontier for the extended enterprise. In: Cross Knowledge.

Jermier, J. M., & Berkes, L. J. (1979). Leader behaviour in a police command bureaucracy: A closer look at the quasi-military model. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1-23.

Jermier, J. M., Slocum, J. W., Fry, L. W., & Gaines, J. (1991). Organizational subcultures in a soft bureaucracy: Resistance behind the myth and facade of an official culture. Organization Science, 2(2), 170-194.

Johnson, R. (2005). Minimum requirements for police chiefs in the USA. The Police Journal, 78, 101-118.

Johnson, R. (2006). Management influences on officer traffic enforcement productivity. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 8(3), 205-217.

Johnson, R. (2015). Police organizational commitment: The influence of supervisor feedback and support. Crime & Delinquency, 61(9), 1155-1180.

Johnson, R. (2017). Community policing is not soft on crime: The evidence. https://www.dolanconsultinggroup.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/ResearchBrief_CommunityPolicing.pdf accessed on 15th July 2018.

Johnson, R., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. Educational researcher, 33(7), 14-26.

Jones, J. (1995). Counselling issues and police diversity. Police psychology into the 21st century, 207-254.

Jones, J. (2018). How can leaders and managers in the police support the learning of others and at the same time, support their own? International Journal of Emergency Services. 7 (3), 228-247.

Jones, T., & Newburn, T. (2002). The transformation of policing? Understanding current trends in policing systems. British Journal of Criminology, 42(1), 129-146.

Jones-Evans, D., Williams, W., & Deacon, J. (2000). Developing entrepreneurial graduates: an action-learning approach. Education+ training, 42(4/5), 282-288.

Jordan, E. B. (2014). Comparison of entry-level police officers and training instructors' perceptions of the training environment as it relates to the transferability of training. Capella University. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Capella University.

Kajewski, K., & Madsen, V. (2013). Demystifying 70:20:10 White Paper. In. Melbourne: Deakin University.

Kakabadse, A., & Dainty, P. (1988). Police chief officers: a management development survey. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 3(3), 2-45.

Kalia, M. (2002). Assessing the economic impact of stress: The modern day hidden epidemic. Metabolism, 51(6), 49-53.

Kalinovich, A. V., & Marrone, J. A. (2017). Shared Leadership: A Primer and Teaching Recommendations for Educators. Journal of Leadership Education, 16(1).

Keane, J., & Bell, P. (2014). Ethics and Police Management: The Impact of Leadership Style on Misconduct by Senior Police Leaders in the United Kingdom (UK) and Australia. International Journal of Management & Administrative Sciences, 2(3), 1-15.

Keelty, M. (2013). Sustaining the unsustainable. The Police and Community Safety Review, Final Report. Retrieved from Brisbane, Australia. Available online at: http://researchoutput.csu.edu.au/en/publications/sustaining-the-unsustainable-police-and-community-safety-review-f.

Kelley, R. E. (1988). In praise of followers. Harvard Business Review, 66 (6), 142-148.

Kelling, G. (1999). "Broken Windows" and Police Discretion National Institute of Justice Research Report. Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice.(pp. 25-45).

Kelman, S., & Hong, S. (2016). “Hard,”“Soft,” or “Tough Love” Management: What Promotes Successful Performance in a Cross-Organizational Collaboration? International Public Management Journal, 19(2), 141-170.

Kesler, G. C. (2002). Why the leadership bench never gets deeper: Ten insights about executive talent development. Human Resource Planning, 25(1), 32-45.

Kets de Vries, M., & Korotov, K. (2010). Developing leaders and leadership development - Working Paper No. 2010/77/EFE/GLC. Retrieved from SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=1684001 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1684001.

Kiedrowski, J., Ruddell, R., & Petrunik, M. (2017). Police civilianisation in Canada: a mixed methods investigation. Policing and Society, 1-19.

King, W. R. (2003). Bending granite revisited: the command rank structure of American police organizations. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management, 26(2), 208-230.

King, W. R. (2005). Toward a better understanding of the hierarchical nature of police organizations: Conception and measurement. Journal of Criminal Justice, 33(1), 97-109.

Kingshott, B. F. (2006). The role of management and leadership within the context of police service delivery. Criminal Justice Studies, 19(2), 121-137.

Kingshott, B. F., Bailey, K., & Wolfe, S. E. (2004). Police culture, ethics and entitlement theory. Criminal Justice Studies, 17(2), 187-202.

Kirchner, M., & Akdere, M. (2017). Exploring the US Army leader development program in private sector: a new frontier for leadership development. Paper presented at the Refereed Proceedings of the 2017 Academy of Human Resource Development International Research Conference in The Americas, Academy of Human Resource Development, St Paul, MN, March.

Kirschman, E., Kamena, M., & Fay, J. (2015). Counselling cops: What clinicians need to know. Guilford Publications.

Klakegg, O. J. (2016). Ontology and epistemology. In Designs, Methods and Practices for Research of Project Management (pp. 87-96): Routledge.

Klockars, C. B. (1985). The idea of police (Vol. 3). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Knight, D., Bailey, S., & Burns, K. (2015). The Ohio Association of Chiefs of Police Assessment Centre Report. Retrieved from London, Ohio: https://oacp.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/ExampleLondonChiefOfPoliceAssessmentCenterFinalReport10-31-2015.pdf.

Knight, G. (2014). Calls for service and effectiveness: The role of performance management systems. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. School of Criminology and Criminal Justice, Griffith University.

Kodz, J., & Campbell, I. (2010). What works in leadership development? A rapid evidence review. Research. National Policing Improvement Agency (NPIA). Retrieved May 23, 2017, from http://whatworks.college.police.uk/Research/Documents/What%20Works%20in%20Leadership_development_REA.pdf.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development (Vol. 1): Prentice-Hall Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Kotter, J. P. (2001). What leaders really do. Harvard business review, 79(11), 85-98.

Kramer, J., Hall, A., & Heller, T. (2013). Reciprocity and social capital in sibling relationships of people with disabilities. Mental Retardation, 51(6), 482-495.

Kraut, A. I., & Korman, A. K. (1999). Evolving practices in human resource management: Responses to a changing world of work: Jossey-Bass Publishers San Francisco, CA.

Krimmel, J. T., & Lindenmuth, P. (2001). Police chief performance and leadership styles. Police Quarterly, 4(4), 469-483.

Kroes, W. H. (1976). Society's victim, the policeman: an analysis of job stress in policing. Thomas Springfield, IL.

Kuykendall, J., & Unsinger, P. C. (1982). The leadership styles of police managers. Journal of Criminal Justice, 10(4), 311-321.

Kyle, M. J., & Schafer, J. A. (2016). Effective leadership in policing. Stress in Policing: Sources, consequences and interventions, 295.

LaMontagne, A. D. (2016). An integrated workplace mental health intervention in Victoria Police: results of a cluster-randomised trial. Psychiatry, 16, 49.

Lanyon, I. J. (2009). Continuing professional development: a critical element for professionalisation of policing. Australasian Policing, 1(2), 25.

Lavin, J., & Kemp, H. (2013). Leadership and Management development strategies utilised by the Queensland Police Service to achieve values based leadership capabilities and effective transition from Sergeant to Inspector. Paper presented at the Policing and Security in Practice: Then, now and into the future, Sydney.

Lawson, C. (2016). The cultural paradox of the researcher's identity in interview-based research design for policing. Unpublished manuscript. Central Queensland University, Rockhampton.

Le Fevre, M., Matheny, J., & Kolt, G. S. (2003). Eustress, distress, and interpretation in occupational stress. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18(7), 726-744.

Lee, M., & Punch, M. (2004). Policing by degrees: police officers' experience of university education. Policing and Society, 14(3), 233-249.

Leishman, F., & Mason, P. (2012). *Policing and the Media*, Taylor and Francis Group, London.

Leskiw, S.-L., & Singh, P. (2007). Leadership development: Learning from best practices. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 28(5), 444-464.

Levenson, R. L., O'Hara, A. F., & Clark, R. (2010). The badge of life psychological survival for police officers program. International Journal of Emergency Mental Health. 12(2), 95-101.

Lewin, K. (1951). Field theory in social science: selected theoretical papers (Edited by Dorwin Cartwright.).

Lewis, C. (2010). Crime and misconduct commission: Moving away from Fitzgerald. In C. Lewis, J. Ransley, & R. Homel (Eds.), The Fitzgerald Legacy: Reforming public life in Australia and beyond (pp. 57 - 80). Bowen Hills, Australia. Australian Academic Press.

Lewis, C., Ransley, J., & Homel, R. (2010). The state we were in. In C. Lewis, J. Ransley, & R. Homel (Eds.), The Fitzgerald Legacy: Reforming public life in Australia and beyond (pp. 1 - 21). Bowen Hills, Australia. Australian Academic Press.

Lievens, F. (2009). Assessment centres: A tale about dimensions, exercises, and dancing bears. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 18(1), 102-121.

Lindberg, O., Rantatalo, O., & Haake, U. (2015). Police leadership practice in times of uncertainty and organisational turmoil.. In: Bohlinger S., Haake U., Jørgensen C.H., Toiviainen H., Wallo A. (eds) Working and Learning in Times of Uncertainty. Research on the Education and Learning of Adults. Sense Publishers, Rotterdam (pp. 103-116).

Loftus, B. (2009). Police culture in a changing world. Bethan Loftus, Clarendon Studies in Criminology, Oxford.

Loftus, B. (2010). Police occupational culture: classic themes, altered times. Policing & Society, 20(1), 1-20.

Loveday, B. (2006). Policing performance: the impact of performance measures and targets on police forces in England and Wales. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 8(4), 282-293.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. The Leadership Quarterly, 7(3), 385-425.

Lum, C., & Koper, C. S. (2017). Evidence-based policing: Translating research into practice: Oxford University Press Oxford, UK.

Lum, C., Koper, C. S., & Telep, C. W. (2011). The evidence-based policing matrix. Journal of Experimental Criminology, 7(1), 3-26.

Lundman, R. J. (1979). Organisational norms and police discretion. Criminology, 17(2), 159-171.

Lynch, C. G. (2018). Don't let them kill you on some dirty roadway: survival, entitled violence, and the culture of modern American policing. Contemporary Justice Review, 21(1), 33-43.

Macdonald, R. (1995). Skills and qualities required of police leaders, now and in the future. In B. Etter & M. Palmer (Eds.), Police leadership in Australasia (pp. 208-233): Federation Press.

Macfarlane, P., & Mould, C. (2002). Report of the Review of Senior Officer Training and Development. Retrieved from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/.../appendices.pdf.

Maciha, M. J. (2014). The practice of leadership: A survey of National Park Service chief park rangers. Northern Arizona University. https://search.proquest.com.

Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. Retrieved July 23, 2018 from www.secure.apu.ac.jp.

Maguire, E. (1997). Structural change in large municipal police organizations during the community policing era. Justice Quarterly, 14(3), 547-576.

Maguire, E., Shin, Y., Zhao, J., & Hassell, K. D. (2003). Structural change in large police agencies during the 1990s. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 26(2), 251-275.

Maher, M. (2012). Creating leaders who make a difference. The Police Bulletin (363), 31.

Mann, M. (2017). New public management and the 'business' of policing organised crime in Australia. Criminology & Criminal Justice, 17(4), 382–400. .

Manning, P. K. (1996). Information technology in the police context: the "sailor" phone. Information Systems Research, 7(1), 52-62.

Marks, M. (2000). Transforming police organizations from within. British Journal of Criminology, 40(4), 557-573.

Marks, M. (2007). Police unions and their influence: subculture or counter-culture? Sociology of Crime Law and Deviance, 8, 229-251.

Marks, M., & Fleming, J. (2004). As Unremarkable as the Air they Breathe. Reforming Police Management in South Africa. Current Sociology, 52(5), 784-808.

Marks, M., & Fleming, J. (2006). The right to unionize, the right to bargain, and the right to democratic policing. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 605(1), 178-199.

Marks, M., & Sklansky, D. (2008). Voices from below: unions and participatory arrangements in the police workplace. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 9(2), 85-94.

Marks, M., & Sklansky, D. (2014). Police reform from the bottom up: officers and their unions as agents of change. Routledge.

Marodin, J. K., Waterhouse, J., & Malik, A. (2017). Informal learning in the workplace: a Framework to support an innovating environment. Retrieved on 14th March, 2018 https://www.anzam.org/wp-content/uploads/pdf-manager/2843_ANZAM-2016-404-FILE001.PDF.

Marquardt, M. J. (2003). Developing global leaders via action learning programs: a case study at Boeing. Thai Journal of Public Administration, 1(3), 133-133.

Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (1990). Informal and incidental learning in the workplace: London, Routledge.

Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (2001). Informal and incidental learning. New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education, 2001(89), 25-34.

Marsick, V. J., Volpe, M., & Watkins, K. E. (1999). Theory and practice of informal learning in the knowledge era. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 1(3), 80-95.

Marsick, V. J., Watkins, K. E., Callahan, M. W., & Volpe, M. (2006). Reviewing Theory and Research on Informal and Incidental Learning. Retrieved from doi:http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED492754.pdf.

Martin, H. C., Rogers, C., Samuel, A. J., & Rowling, M. (2017). Serving from the top: police leadership for the twenty-first century. International Journal of Emergency Services, 6(3), 209-219.

Martinussen, M., Richardsen, A., & Burke, R. J. (2007). Job demands, job resources, and burnout among police officers. Journal of Criminal Justice, 35(3), 239-249.

Mastrofski, S. D. (2006). Police organization and management issues for the next decade: National Institute of Justice. https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/grants/218584.pdf.

Mastrofski, S. D. (2018). The romance of police leadership. In Crime and Social Organization (pp. 171-214): Routledge.

Mastrofski, S. D., & Ritti, R. R. (1996). Police training and the effects of organization on drunk driving enforcement. Justice Quarterly, 13(2), 291-320.

Mastrofski, S. D., & Willis, J. J. (2010). Police organization continuity and change: Into the twenty-first century. Crime and Justice, 39(1), 55-144.

Mastrowski, S. (2004). Controlling street-level police discretion. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 593, 100-120.

Mazarr, M. J. (2017). Developing Senior Leaders for the Reserve Components. Retrieved January 30, 2018, from Rand Corporation, National Defence Research Institute Web site: http://www.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/1024983.pdf.

Mazerolle, L., Darroch, S., & White, G. (2013). Leadership in problem-oriented policing. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 36(3), 6-6.

McAlearney, A. S. (2006). Leadership development in healthcare: a qualitative study. Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 27(7), 967-982.

McCabe, K. A., & Fajardo, R. G. (2001). Law enforcement accreditation: A national comparison of accredited vs. non-accredited agencies. Journal of Criminal Justice, 29(2), 127-131.

McCall, M. W. (2004). Leadership development through experience. The Academy of Management Executive, 18(3), 127-130.

McCall, M. W. (2010). Recasting leadership development. Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3(1), 3-19.

McCall, M. W., Lombardo, M. M., & Morrison, A. M. (1988). The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the job. Lexington MA: Lexington Books.

McCallum, S., & O'Connell, D. (2009). Social capital and leadership development: Building stronger leadership through enhanced relational skills. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 30(2), 152-166.

McCarthy, Q. (2012). Police leadership: a primer for the individual and the organization. Palgrave Macmillan.

McCauley, C. D. (2008). Leader development: A review of research. Centre for Creative Leadership, Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Cynthia_Mccauley/publication/266495919_Leader_Development_A_Review_of_Research/links/54ec89f90cf2465f532f980c.pdf.

McCauley, C. D., & Douglas, C. A. (2004). "Developmental relationships". In C. McCauley & E. Velsor (Eds.), The Centre for Creative Leadership Handbook: Leadership Development (Vol. 2nd, pp. 85-115). San Francisco CA: Jossey-Bass.

McCauley, C. D., & Wakefield, M. (2006). Talent management in the 21st century: Help your company find, develop, and keep its strongest workers. The Journal for Quality and Participation, 29(4), 4.

McCauley, C. D., Kanaga, K., & Lafferty, K. (2010b). Leader development systems. In The Center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development, Van Velsor, E., McCauley, C., Ruderman, M. (Eds), 29-61. (Vol. 122): John Wiley & Sons.

McCauley, C. D., Van Velsor, E., & Ruderman, M. N. (2010a). Introduction: Our view of leadership development. In The Center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development, (Vol. 122): John Wiley & Sons.

McClelland, S. (1994). Gaining competitive advantage through Strategic Management Development (SMD). Journal of Management Development, 13, 4-13.

McConnell, I. M. (2013). "You never stop learning": Informal and incidental workplace learning and women city managers' career development. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia. Retrieved from https://getd.libs.uga.edu/pdfs/mcconnell_ilka_m_201312_phd.pdf.

McCoy, M. R. (2006). Teaching style and the application of adult learning principles by police instructors. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 29(1), 77-91.

McLaughlin, E. (2005). Forcing the issue: New labour, new localism and the democratic renewal of police accountability. The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice, 44(5), 473-489.

McLeod, A., & Herrington, V. (2016). Fostering police leadership capacity in Solomon Islands: Understanding the challenges to organizational reform. Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, 10(1), 44-54.

Meaklim, T., & Sims, J. (2011). Leading Powerful Partnerships—a new model of public sector leadership development. The International Journal of Leadership in Public Services, 7(1), 21-31.

Merriam, S. B., & Bierema, L. L. (2013). Adult learning: Linking theory and practice: John Wiley & Sons.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2000). Is the force still with you? Measuring police commitment. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 15(8), 812-832.

Metcalfe, B., & Dick, G. (2001). Exploring organisation commitment in the police: Implications for human resource strategy. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(3), 399-420.

Miller, H. A., Watkins, R. J., & Webb, D. (2009). The use of psychological testing to evaluate law enforcement leadership competencies and development. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 10(1), 49-60.

Mitchell, M. (2009). Examining the prevailing assumptions of Australasian police leadership: A project overview. Australasian Policing, 1(2), 31.

Mitchell, M., & Casey, J. P. (2007). Police leadership and management: Federation Press.

Mittleman, P. (2004). What are the other cops thinking? Police officers' attitudes toward misconduct in peers. Law Enforcement Executive Forum, 4(5), 101 – 109.

Moggré, M., den Boer, M., & Fyfe, N. R. (2017). Police leadership in times of transition. Policing: Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice, Volume 12, Issue 4 (1), 388–397.

Moore, D. B. (1994). Views at the top, down under: Australian police managers on Australian policing. Policing and Society: An International Journal, 4(3), 191-217.

More, H. (1992). Male dominated police culture: reducing the gender gap. Special topics in policing, 113-137. https://www.ncjrs.gov/App/abstractdb/AbstractDBDetails.aspx?id=133117.

More, H. (1998). Special topics in policing. http://www.ncjrs.gov/App/publications/abstract.aspx?ID=133112.

More, H., & Miller, L. S. (2014). Effective police supervision. Routledge.

Moriarty, S. E. (2009). The leadership in police organizations program in the Delaware State Police: Recommendations for law enforcement leadership development. Police Chief, 76(5), 7-13.

Morreale, S. A., & Ortmeier, P. J. (2004). Preparing leaders for law enforcement. The Police Chief, 71(10), 89-98. doi: http://www.policechiefmagazine.org/magazine/index.cfm?fuseaction=display_arch&article_id=1396&issue_id=102004.

Morris, P., Heal, K., & Britain, G. (1981). Crime control and the police: A review of research. HM Stationery Office.

Moxen, J., & Strachan, P. (2017). Managing green teams: environmental change in organisations and networks: Routledge.

Muller, J., Maclean, R., & Biggs, H. (2009). The impact of a supportive leadership program in a policing organisation from the participants' perspective. Work: A Journal of Prevention, Assessment and Rehabilitation, 32(1), 69-79.

Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Connelly, M. S., & Marks, M. A. (2000). Leadership skills: Conclusions and future directions. The Leadership Quarterly, 11(1), 155-170.

Munro, S. (2017). Factors influencing learning transfer in a supportive leadership development programme. Unpublished PhD thesis, Deakin University, http://dro.deakin.edu.au/view/DU:30103511.

Murphy, S. (2005). Recourse to executive coaching: The mediating role of human resources. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 7(3), 175-186.

Murphy, S. (2006). Executive development and succession planning: Qualitative evidence. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 8(4), 253-265.

Murphy, S. (2008). The role of emotions and transformational leadership on police culture: an autoethnographic account. International Journal of Police Science and Management, 10(2), 165-178.

Murphy, S., & Drodge, E. (2004). The four I's of police leadership: a case study heuristic. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 6(1), 1-15.

Murphy, W. M., & Gibson, K. R. (2017). 23. Advancing women through developmental relationships. Handbook of Research on Gender and Leadership, 361.

Murray, T. (2000). Police and the challenge of the 21st century: managing change in police organisations. Platypus Magazine, September. doi: http://www.afp.gov.au/en/media-centre/publications/platypus/previous-editions/2000/september-2000/2-21century.aspx.

Mustafa, R. F. (2011). The POE Ms of Educational Research: A Beginners' Concise Guide. International Education Studies, 4(3), 23-30.

Myatt, M. (2014). The Key to Success: Aligning Leadership and Culture. Leader to Leader, (73), 37-42.

Myhill, A., & Bradford, B. (2013). Overcoming cop culture? Organizational justice and police officers' attitudes toward the public. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 36(2), 338-356.

Neergaard, M. A., Olesen, F., Andersen, R. S., & Sondergaard, J. (2009). Qualitative description–the poor cousin of health research? BMC medical research methodology, 9(1), 52.

Newburn, T. (2008). The context of policing. In T. Newburn (Ed.), The context of policing (pp. 115-118). Willan Publishing.

Neyroud, P. (2010). Review of Police Leadership and Training. Gov. UK. Home Office. Retrieved July 4, 2016 from www.nypolfed.org.uk/assets/uploads/PDFs/neyroud_final.pdf.

Neyroud, P. (2011). Leading policing in the 21st century: leadership, democracy, deficits and the new professionalism. Public Money & Management, 31(5), 347-354.

Neyroud, P., & Weisburd, D. (2014). Transforming the police through science: the challenge of ownership. In Oxford University Press.

Nhan, J. (2014). Police Culture 1–6. (Journal, Electronic). Retrieved from doi: 10.1002/9781118517383.wbeccj371.

Nieuwenhuys, A., & Oudejans, R. R. (2011). Training with anxiety: short-and long-term effects on police officers' shooting behaviour under pressure. Cognitive Processing, 12(3), 277-288.

Norcross, R. H. (2003). The Modern Warrior. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 72, 20.

Northouse, P. G. (2017). Introduction to leadership: Concepts and practice: Sage Publications.

NSWPF. (2015). NSW Police Force Annual Report 2014-15. Servicing the State of New South Wales - Celebrating 100 years of women in policing. Retrieved August 29, 2017 from https://www.opengov.nsw.gov.au/download/15215.

NSWPF. (2016). NSW Police Force Annual Report 2015-2016. Retrieved May 8, 2017 from https://www.police.nsw.gov.au/__.../NSW_Police_Force_Annual_Report_2015-16.pdf.

NSWPF. (2017). New South Wales Police Force (NSWPF) - History - NSW Police Public Site, Retrieved: August 29, 2017 from http://www.police.nsw.gov.au/about_us/history.

NSWPF. (2018). New South Wales Police Force. NSW Police Recruitment - Rank Insignia. Retrieved July 14, 2018, from NSW Police Web site: https://www.police.nsw.gov.au/recruitment/the_career/ranks_of_the_nsw_police_force.

NSWPF. (2018). New South Wales Police Force; Leaders at all levels – educational strategies to develop, engage and retain commissioned officers Unpublished paper. Command College, Yarramundi, NSW.

NTP. (2017). Northern Territory Police - All things policing; Retrieved August 27, 2017 from http://www.allthingspolicing.com/Main%20Home/index.php/police-insignia/police-insignia-australia/northern-territory-police/8-police-insignia-australia.

NTPFES. (2015). Northern Territory Police, Fire and Emergency Services 2014-2015 Annual report. Retrieved August 29, 2017 from http://www.pfes.nt.gov.au/Publications-and-forms.aspx.

NTPMHS. (2018). Northern Territory Police Museum and Historical Society Incorporated. Accessed on 14th July 2018: https://sites.google.com/site/ntpmhsociety/home/our-rich-history/equipment-1/equipment/badges-and-insignia.

O'Leary, D., Resnick-Luetke, S., & Monk-Turner, E. (2011). Holding out for a hero: selecting a chief of police. Police Practice and Research, 12(5), 435-449.

O'Connell, P. K. (2014). A simplified framework for 21st century leader development. The Leadership Quarterly: doi:http://dx.doi.org.libraryproxy.griffith.edu.au/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.06.001.

Office of Police, I. (2010). Flexible Work Practices for Policing. Retrieved on 12 January, 2018 from http://www.ibac.vic.gov.au/docs/default-source/reviews/opi-issues-papers/opi-issues-paper---flexible-work-practices-for-policing.pdf?sfvrsn=21e46175_6.

Ohlott, P. J. (2004). Job assignments. The Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development, 2, 151-182.

Oliva, J. R., & Compton, M. T. (2010). What do police officers value in the classroom?: A qualitative study of the classroom social environment in law enforcement education. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 33(2), 321-338.

Oliver, P. (2013). What are the key competencies, qualities and attributes of the African American police chief? (Unpublished PhD thesis), Antioch University.

Orr, M. (2006). Learning the superintendency: Socialization, negotiation, and determination. The Teachers College Record, 108(7), 1362-1403.

Ortmeier, P. J., & Meese, E. (2010). Leadership, ethics, and policing: Challenges for the 21st century. Prentice Hall.

Österlind, M., & Haake, U. (2010). The leadership discourse amongst female police leaders in Sweden. Advancing Women in Leadership Journal. The First Online Professional, Refereed Journal for Women in Leadership, 30(16), 1-24.

Panari, C., Guglielmi, D., Simbula, S., & Depolo, M. (2010). Can an opportunity to learn at work reduce stress? A revisitation of the job demand-control model. Journal of Workplace Learning, 22(3), 166-179.

Paoline, E. (2003). Taking stock: Toward a richer understanding of police culture. Journal of Criminal Justice, 31(3), 199-214.

Paoline, E. (2004). Shedding light on police culture: an examination of officers' occupational attitudes. Police Quarterly, 7(2), 205-236.

Paoline, E., Myers, S. M., & Worden, R. E. (2000). Police culture, individualism, and community policing: Evidence from two police departments. Justice Quarterly, 17(3), 575-605.

Par, N. (2015). Strategic leader influence actions and the effectiveness of police leaders. (unpublished PhD thesis), Spalding University. ProQuest.

Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. Journal of business ethics, 113(3), 377-393.

Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2002). Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership: Sage.

Pearce, C. L., & Sims, H. P. (2000). Shared leadership: Toward a multi-level theory of leadership. In Advances in interdisciplinary studies of work teams (pp. 115-139). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Pearson-Goff, M., & Herrington, V. (2013). Police leadership: a systematic review of the literature. Policing, 8(1), 14-26.

Peetz, D., Muurlink, O., Townsend, K., Wilkinson, A., & Brabant, M. (2017). Are new organisations at the cutting edge of employment relations innovation? Personnel Review, 46(7), 1397-1413.

Perez, D., & Barkhurst, M. (2012). Paradoxes of leadership in police management. Cengage Learning.

Peterson, M. (2005). Intelligence-led policing: The new intelligence architecture (Vol. 12). US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.

Petrie, N. (2014). Vertical leadership development–part 1 developing leaders for a complex world. Center for Creative Leadership.

Phillips, W. E., & Burrell, D. N. (2009). Decision-making skills that encompass a critical thinking orientation for law enforcement professionals. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 11(2), 141-149.

Pickard, A. J. (2013). Research methods in information (2nd Ed.), Facet publishing.

Pogrebin, M. R., & Poole, E. D. (1991). Police and tragic events: the management of emotions. Journal of Criminal Justice, 19(4), 395-403.

Poitras J.P. (2017) Frameworks of Police Leadership: Evolution of Change. In: Clark M., Gruber C. (eds) Leader Development Deconstructed. Annals of Theoretical Psychology, vol 15. Springer, Cham

Popper, M., & Lipshitz, R. (1993). Putting leadership theory to work: a conceptual framework for theory-based leadership development. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 14(7), 23-27.

Prenzler, T. (1997). Is there a police culture? Australian Journal of Public Administration, 56(4), 47-56.

Prenzler, T. (2011). The evolution of police oversight in Australia. Policing and Society, 21(3), 284-303.

Prenzler, T., Martin, K., & Sarre, R. (2010). Tertiary education in security and policing in Australia. Asian Journal of Criminology, 5(1), 1-10.

Proud, L. (2013). Five years on ANZPAA and professionalization. Australasian Policing, 5(1), 13.

Pugh, D., S., Hickson, D. J., Hinings, C. R., & Turner, C. (1996). The context of organization structures. Administrative Science Quarterly, 14.

Punch, M. (2000). Police corruption and its prevention. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research, 8(3), 301-324.

Punch, M. (2009). Police corruption: deviance, accountability and reform in policing. Routledge.

QPCOUE (2016). [Queensland Police Commissioned Officers' Union of Employees]. http://qpcoue.com.au/.

QPS. (2013). Overview of the Proposed Changes to the Structure and Governance of the Queensland Police Service. Retrieved March 23, 2017 from http://www.police.qld.gov.au/corporatedocs/repotsPublications/Douments/SummaryStructuralChangesQPS.pdf.

QPS. (2014a ). Queensland Police leadership framework. Queensland Police Service, Brisbane. Human Resource Division. Unpublished Report.

QPS. (2014b). Professional Development Review (PDU). Queensland Police Academy. Unpublished review.

QPS. (2015a). Queensland Police Service (QPS) Annual Statistical Review 2014-2015. Retrieved from
http://www.police.qld.gov.au.

QPS. (2015b). Task Force Bletchley. Retrieved from
https://www.police.qld.gov.au/corporatedocs/reportsPublications/Documents/Task%20Force%20Bletchley.pdf on 15th January 2018.

QPS. (2016a). The Queensland Police Service (QPS) Annual Statistical Review - 2015-2016. Retrieved from Brisbane, Australia
https://www.police.qld.gov.au/corporatedocs/reportsPublications/statisticalReview/2015-2016.htm.

QPS. (2016b). Queensland Police Service (QPS) Annual Report 2015 - 2016. Retrieved from Brisbane, Australia
https://www.police.qld.gov.au/corporatedocs/reportsPublications/annualReport/Annual-Report-2015-2016.htm.

QPS. (2017). Queensland Police Service (QPS) Annual Statistical Review 2016-17. Retrieved from
https://www.police.qld.gov.au/.../reportsPublications/statisticalReview/default.htm.

Quinton, P., Myhill, A., Bradford, B., Fildes, A., & Porter, G. (2015). Fair cop 2: Organisational justice, behaviour and ethical policing.

Rabe-Hemp, C. (2008). Survival in an all boys club: policewomen and their fight for acceptance. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 31(2), 251-270.

Rabin, R. (2014). Blended learning for leadership: The CCL approach. Center for Creative Leadership.

Rainguet, F. W., & Dodge, M. (2001). The problems of police chiefs: an examination of the issues in tenure and turnover. Police Quarterly, 4(3), 268-288.

Raitano, R. E., & Kleiner, B. H. (2004). Stress management: Stressors, diagnosis, and preventative measures. Management Research News, 27(4-5), 32–39.

Ramsey, C., & Robinson, L. (2015). The president's task force on 21st century policing implementation guide: moving recommendations to action. Retrieved from Washington, DC: https://ric-zai-inc.com/Publications/cops-p341-pub.pdf.

Ratcliffe, J. (2003). Intelligence-led policing. Australian Institute of Criminology. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/db84/a18d7770e86a575dca82d29533337327b43a.pdf on 12th February, 2018.

Ratcliffe, J. (2016). Intelligence-led policing. Routledge.

Regolil, R. M., & Poole, E. D. (1980). Police professionalism and role conflict: A comparison of rural and urban departments. Human Relations, 33(4), 241-252.

Reiner, R. (2010). The politics of the police. Oxford University Press.

Reiss, A. J., & Bordua, D. J. (1964). Environment and organization: A perspective on the police.
Retrieved from:
https://scholar.google.com.au/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=Shane+%282010%29+police+stress&btnG=.

Reuss-Ianni, E. (2011). Two cultures of policing: street cops and management cops. Transaction Publishers.

Reuss-Ianni, E., & Ianni, F. (1983). Street cops and management cops: the two cultures of policing. Control in the police organization, 251-274. Transaction Books.

Ribiere, V. M., & Sitar, A. S. (2003). Critical role of leadership in nurturing a knowledge-supporting culture. Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 1(1), 39-48.

Riggio, R. E. (2008). Leadership development: The current state and future expectations. Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 60(4), 383.

Roberg, R. R. (1994). Can today's police organizations effectively implement community policing? In D. P. Rosenbaum (Ed.), The challenge of community policing: testing the promises (pp. 149-157). Sage Publications.

Roberg, R. R., & Bonn, S. (2004). Higher education and policing: where are we now? Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 27(4), 469-486.

Roberts, K., Herrington, V., Jones, W., White, J., & Day, D. (2016). Police leadership in 2045: The value of education in developing leadership. Policing, 10(1), 26-33.

Roffe, I. (1999). Innovation and creativity in organisations: a review of the implications for training and development. Journal of European industrial training, 23(4/5), 224-241.

Rogers, C., & Frevel, B. (2018). Introduction: Higher police education—an international perspective. In Higher education and police (pp. 1-14). Springer.

Rosemarie, S., Mary, C., & Jackie, C. (2004). Researching the researchers: Using a snowballing technique. Nurse researcher, 12(1).

Rosser, C. (2010). Developing leaders through Leadership in Police Organizations (LPO) sm. The Police Chief, 77(5), 38-44.

Rossiter, D. E. (2014). Leadership skills. Infobase Publishing.

Rothmann, S., & Van Rensburg, P. (2002). Psychological strengths, coping and suicide ideation in the South African Police Services in the North West Province. SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 28(3), 39-49.

Rowe, A. H. (2016). Managing a crisis: leadership and organizational elements essential for success. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation), Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Rowe, M. (2006). Following the leader: front-line narratives on police leadership. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 29(4), 757-767.

Rowe, M., Turner, E., & Pearson, G. (2016). Learning and practicing police craft. Journal of Organizational Ethnography, 5(3), 276-286.

Rumens, N., & Broomfield, J. (2012). Gay men in the police: Identity disclosure and management issues. Human Resource Management Journal, 22(3), 283-298.

Russell, G. D., & MacLachlan, S. (1999). Community policing, decentralized decision making and employee satisfaction. Journal of Crime and Justice, 22(2), 31-54.

Russell, L. M., Cole, B. M., & Jones, R. J. (2014). High-risk occupations: How leadership, stress, and ability to cope influence burnout in law enforcement. Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics, 11(3), 49.

Ryan, A. M., Kriska, S. D., West, B. J., & Sacco, J. M. (2001). Anticipated work/family conflict and family member views: role in police recruiting. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(2), 228-239.

Ryan, P. (1996). Reform of the New South Wales Police Service: Phase 1: Prepared for Mr Paul Whelan, MP, Ministers for Police and the Royal Commission in to the New South Wales Police Force. New South Wales Police.
Rydberg, J., & Terrill, W. (2010). The effect of higher education on police behavior. Police Quarterly, 13(1), 92-120.

SA.GOV. (2016). Government of South Australia. (2016). Living in South Australia. Retrieved August 19, 2017 from https://www.sa.gov.au/topics/about-sa/about-sa.

Sandler, G. B., & Mintz, E. (1974). Police organizations: their changing internal and external relationships. Journal of Police Science & Administration. 2(4), 458-463.

SAPOL. (2016). South Australia Police. Annual Report 2015-2016. Retrieved August 10, 2017 from https://www.police.sa.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/.../Annual-report-2015-2016.pdf.

SAPOL. (2018). South Australia Police, Achieve more - Benefits - S.A. Police. Retrieved July 14, 2018 from https://www.police.sa.gov.au/join-us/achievemore/police-officer-careers/working-as-a-police-officer/benefits.

Sarver, M. B., & Miller, H. (2014). Police chief leadership: styles and effectiveness. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 37(1), 126-143.

Savage, S. (2007). Police reform: forces for change. Oxford University Press.

Scaramella, G. L., Cox, S. M., & McCamey, W. P. (2010). Introduction to policing: Sage.

Schafer, J. A. (2008). Effective police leadership: experiences and perspectives of law enforcement leaders. FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin, 77(7), 13-19.

Schafer, J. A. (2009). Developing effective leadership in policing: perils, pitfalls, and paths forward. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 32(2), 238-260.

Schafer, J. A. (2010a). Effective leaders and leadership in policing: traits, assessment, development, and expansion. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 33(4), 644-663.

Schafer, J. A. (2010b). The ineffective police leader: Acts of commission and omission. Journal of Criminal Justice, 38(4), 737-746.

Schaible, L. M., & Gecas, V. (2010). The impact of emotional labor and value dissonance on burnout among police officers. Police Quarterly, 13(3), 316-341.

Schanzer, D. H., Kurzman, C., Toliver, J., & Miller, E. (2018). The challenge and promise of using community policing strategies to prevent violent extremism. Research report submitted to the US Department of Justice. Triangle Center of Terrorism and Homeland Security, Sanford School of Public Policy, Duke University.

Schein, E. H. (2010). Organizational culture and leadership (Vol. 2): John Wiley & Sons.

Scheiner, S. M. (2001). Multiple response variables and multi-species interactions. In Design and analysis of ecological experiments, Scheiner, S., Gurevitch, J. (Eds.) 99-133.

Schilling, J. (2006). On the pragmatics of qualitative assessment. European journal of psychological assessment, 22(1), 28-37.

Schneider, J. A. (2009). In pursuit of police professionalism: the development and assessment of a conceptual model of professionalism in law enforcement. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis) University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh.

Schneider, M. P. (2016). Graduates' perceptions of a 21st century law enforcement leadership training program. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis), Marian University, Wisconsin.

Schuck, A. M., & Rabe-Hemp, C. E. (2018). Investing in people: salary and turnover in policing. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 41(1), 113-128.

Schunk, D. H. (2012). Learning theories (Vol. 6). Boston: Pearson.

Scott, M. S. (2017). Reconciling problem-oriented policing and evidence-based policing. In Advances in evidence-based policing , Knutsson, J., Tompson, L., (Eds.) (pp. 43-60). Routledge.

Sekhri, R. (2015). Suicide ideation: role of psychological and social factors among Indian police officers. The International Journal of Indian Psychology, 2 (4), 93 – 101.

Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). ‘What’s your story?’A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. The Leadership Quarterly, 16(3), 395-417.

Shamir, B., & Howell, J. M. (1999). Organizational and contextual influences on the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leadership. The Leadership Quarterly, 10(2), 257-283.

Shanahan, P. (2000). Police culture and the learning organisation: a relationship. Paper presented at the Third National Conference of the Australian Vocational Educational and Training Research Association [AVETRA], Canberra Institute of Technology.

Shane, J. M. (2010). Organizational stressors and police performance. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Graduate School-Newark Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

Shane, J. M. (2010a). Performance management in police agencies: a conceptual framework. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 33(1), 6-29.

Shane, J. M. (2010b). Organizational stressors and police performance. Journal of Criminal Justice, 38(4), 807-818.

Shane, J. M. (2010b). Organizational stressors and police performance. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. Graduate School-Newark Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

Sharma, S. K., & Sharma, A. (2010). Examining the relationship between organisational culture and leadership styles. Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 36(1), 97-105.

Sherman, L. W. (2013). The rise of evidence-based policing: targeting, testing, and tracking. Crime and Justice, 42(1), 377-451.

Sherman, S., & Freas, A. (2004). The wild west of executive coaching. Harvard business review, 82(11), 82-93.

Shusta, R. M., Levine, D. R., Harris, P. R., & Wong, H. Z. (2002). Multicultural law enforcement: strategies for peacekeeping in a diverse society. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Silvestri, M. (2006). 'Doing time': Becoming a police leader. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 8(4), 266-281.

Silvestri, M. (2007). Doing police leadership: Enter the “New Smart Macho”. Policing & Society, 17(1), 38-58.

Simmons, K. C. (2009). New governance and the new paradigm of police accountability: a democratic approach to police reform. Cath. UL Rev., 59, 373.

Singer, M. S., & Singer, A. E. (1990). Situational constraints on transformational versus transactional leadership behaviour, subordinates leadership preference, and satisfaction. The Journal of Social Psychology, 130(3), 385-396.

Singh, A. (2013). Leadership and learning on the frontier. Paper presented at the AFAC13 Shaping Tomorrow Together, Melbourne, 2-5 September.

Sinha, C., & Kumar, H. (2016). Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence, Work Attitude & Outcomes: Examination of Indian Middle-Managerial Level Employees. Journal of Organizational Psychology, 16(1).

Skipton, L. H., & Lang, F. (2010). Leadership development via action learning. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 12(2), 225-240.

Sklansky, D. A. (2006). Not your father's police department: making sense of the new demographics of law enforcement. The Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology 96(3), 1209-1243.

Sklansky, D. A. (2014). The promise and the perils of police professionalism. London: Routledge.

Sklansky, D. A., & Marks, M. (2008). The role of the rank and file in police reform. Policing & Society, 18(1), 1-6.

Skogan, W. G. (2008). Why reforms fail. Policing & Society, 18(1), 23-34.

Skolnick, J. (2002). Corruption and the blue code of silence. Police Practice and Research, 3(1), 7-19.

Smith, B. (2017). Evidence-based policing: reducing crime and disorder with informed strategy. Retrieved 14th August, 2017 from https://shsu-ir.tdl.org/handle/20.500.11875/2269.

Smith, B. W. (2005). Ethno-racial political transition and citizen satisfaction with police. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 28(2), 242-254.

Sommerfeldt, V. (2010). An identification of factors influencing police workplace motivation. (Doctorate), Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Spector, P. E. (2002). Employee control and occupational stress. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 11(4), 133-136.

Stamper, N. H. (1992). Removing managerial barriers to effective police leadership: a study of executive leadership and executive management in big-city police departments. Paper presented at the Police Executive Research Forum. Washington, DC.

Steinheider, B., & Wuestewald, T. (2008). From the bottom up: sharing leadership in a police agency. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 9(2), 145-163.

Stenning, P. C. (2000). Powers and accountability of private police. European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research, 8(3), 325-352.

Stone, C. (2007). Tracing police accountability in theory and practice: from Philadelphia to Abuja and Sao Paulo. Theoretical Criminology, 11(2), 245-259.

Stone, C., & Travis, J. (2013). Toward a new professionalism in policing. JIJIS, 13, 11. Heinonline.

Stroshine, M. (2015). Technological innovations in policing. In R. G. Dunham & G. P. Alpert (Eds.), Critical issues in policing: contemporary readings (pp. 229-243). Waveland Press.

Subramony, M., Segers, J., Chadwick, C., & Shyamsunder, A. (2018). Leadership development practice bundles and organizational performance: The mediating role of human capital and social capital. Journal of Business Research, 83, 120-129.

Suutari, V., & Viitala, R. (2008). Management development of senior executives: Methods and their effectiveness. Personnel Review, 37(4), 375-392.

Sykes, G. W. (1985). The functional nature of police reform: the "myth" of controlling the police. Justice Quarterly, 2(1), 51-65.

Tabachnick, B., & Fidell, L. (2001). Logistic regression. Using multivariate statistics, 5, 437-505.

Tasdoven, H., & Kapucu, N. (2013). Personal perceptions and organizational factors influencing police discretion: evidence from the Turkish National Police. International Review of Administrative Sciences, 79(3), 523-543.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research: Sage Publications, Inc.

TASPOL. (2017). Tasmania Police DPFEM Annual Report 2016-2017. Retrieved November 15, 2017 from www.police.tas.gov.au/news/2016-17-dpfem-annual-report.

Taylor, S. J., Bogdan, R., & DeVault, M. (2015). Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource: John Wiley & Sons.

Teigen, K. H. (1994). Yerkes-Dodson: A law for all seasons. Theory & Psychology, 4(4), 525-547.

The Home Office. (2004). Home Office Departmental Report 2004. Retrieved from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/...data/...6528.pdf.

Thomas, R. J., & Cheese, P. (2005). Leadership: Experience is the best teacher. Strategy & Leadership, 33(3), 24-29.

Thompson, B. M., Kirk, A., & Brown, D. F. (2005). Work based support, emotional exhaustion, and spillover of work stress to the family environment: A study of policewomen. Stress and Health, 21(3), 199-207.

Thorne, C. S. (2003). Implementation of community policing within the Brisbane Metropolitan North Police Region: issues and problems. (Unpublished PhD Doctorate), Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane.

Thorpe, R. (2015). Research in Management and Business Studies in Research methods in the social sciences, Somekn, B., Lewin, E., (Eds.): Sage Publications.

Tilley, N. (2008). Modern approaches to policing: community, problem-oriented and intelligence-led. Handbook of Policing, 2, 373-403.

Tilley, N., Laycock, G. K., & Webb, B. (2002). Working out what to do: Evidence-based crime reduction: Home Office London.

Toch, H. (2008). Police officers as change agents in police reform. Policing & Society, 18(1), 60-71.

Tong, S., & Bowling, B. (2006). Art, craft and science of detective work. The Police Journal, 79(4), 323-329.

Towle, A., & Cottrell, D. (1996). Self directed learning. Archives of Disease in Childhood, 74(4), 357-359.

Trofymowych, D. (2008). Police education past and present: Perceptions of Australian police managers and academics. Flinders Journal of Law Reform, 10(3), 419-433.

Trojanowicz, R., & Bucqueroux, B. (1990). Community policing. Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing Company.

Tsai, Y. (2011). Relationship between organizational culture, leadership behavior and job satisfaction. BMC health services research, 11(1), 98.

Tyler, M., & McKenzie, W. E. (2011). Mentoring first year police constables: police mentors' perspectives. Journal of Workplace Learning, 23(8), 518-530.

Tyler, T., & Jackson, J. (2014). Popular legitimacy and the exercise of legal authority: motivating compliance, cooperation, and engagement. Psychology, Public Policy, and Law, 20(1), 78.

Tyler, T., Callahan, P. E., & Frost, J. (2007). Armed, and dangerous (?): motivating rule adherence among agents of social control. Law & Society Review, 41(2), 457-492.

Uhl, J. (2010). Mentoring: Nourishing the organizational culture. The Police Chief, 77(6), 66-68.

Uhl-Bien M. (2011) Relational Leadership Theory: Exploring the Social Processes of Leadership and Organizing. In: Werhane P., Painter-Morland M. (eds) Leadership, Gender, and Organization. Issues in Business Ethics, vol 27. Springer, Dordrecht

Uhl-Bien, M., Riggio, R. E., Lowe, K. B., & Carsten, M. K. (2014). Followership theory: A review and research agenda. The Leadership Quarterly, 25(1), 83-104.

Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2003). Why the bottom line isn't!: How to build value through people and organization: John Wiley & Sons.

US.Military.Academy. (2009). Building capacity to lead: The West Point system for leader development. United States Military Academy. Retrieved from https://www.usma.edu/strategic/SiteAssets/SitePages/Home/building%20the%20capacity%20to%20lead.pdf

van Dijk, A., Hoogewoning, F., & Punch, M. (2015). Policing at a turning point: Implications for research. In M. Brunger, S. Tong, & D. Martin (Eds.), Introduction to policing research: taking lessons from practice (pp. 29-41). New York: Routledge.

Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. Administrative Science Quarterly, 207-228.

Van Maanen, J. (1984). Making rank becoming an American police sergeant. Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 13(2), 155-176.

Van Velsor, E., McCauley, C. D., & Moxley, R. S. (2004). Our view of leadership development. In C. D. McCauley & E. Van Velsor (Eds.), The Center for Creative Leadership handbook of leadership development (Vol. 29, pp. 1-25): John Wiley & Sons.

Vanebo, J., Bjørkelo, B., & Aaserud, T. (2015). Police leadership development: intentions and critical success-factors. International Public Administration Review, 13(3–4), 11–26.

Vardiman, P. D., Houghton, J. D., & Jinkerson, D. L. (2006). Environmental leadership development: Toward a contextual model of leader selection and effectiveness. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 27(2), 93-105.

Verma, A. (2016). The new khaki: The evolving nature of policing in India: CRC press.

Vickers, M. H. (2000). Australian police management education and research: a comment from “outside the cave”. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 23(4), 506-525.

Vickers, M. H., & Kouzmin, A. (2001). New managerialism and Australian police organizations: A cautionary research note. International Journal of Public Sector Management, 14(1), 7-26.

VICPOL. (2016). Victoria Police Annual Report 2015-16. Retrieved 10, 2017 from http://www.police.vic.gov.au/content.asp?a=internetBridgingPage&Media_ID=120742.

VICPOL. (2018a). Victoria Police - Victoria Police History. Retrieved September 18, 2018 from https://www.police.vic.gov.au/content.asp?document_id=12325.

VICPOL. (2018b). Victoria Police -The rank and file. Retrieved July 14th, 2018, from https://www.police.vic.gov.au/content.asp?document_id=12383.

VICPOL. (2007). The way ahead: 2008 > 2013. Melbourne: Victoria Police. Retrieved from https://trove.nla.gov.au/version/43836225.

Villiers, P. (2003). Philosophy, doctrine and leadership: some core beliefs. In R. Adlam & P. Villiers (Eds.), Police leadership in the 21st century: philosophy, doctrine and developments. (pp. 15-33). Waterside Press.

Violanti, J. M., & Aron, F. (1994). Ranking police stressors. Psychological Reports, 75(2), 824-826.

Vito, G. F., & Higgins, G. E. (2010). Examining the validity of the leadership challenge inventory: the case for law enforcement. International Journal of Police Science & Management, 12(3), 305-319.

Vito, G. F., Higgins, E. G., & Denney, S. A. (2014). Transactional and transformational leadership: An examination of the leadership challenge model. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 37(4), 809-822.

Vito, G. F., Suresh, G., & Richards, G. E. (2011). Emphasizing the servant in public service: the opinions of police managers. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 34(4), 674-686.

Vito, G. F., Walsh, W. F., & Kunselman, J. (2005). Community policing: The middle manager's perspective. Police Quarterly, 8(4), 490-511.

Vodde, R. F. (2008). The efficacy of an andragogical instructional methodology in basic police training and education. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis), University of Leicester, UK.

Voola, R., Carlson, J., & West, A. (2004). Emotional intelligence and competitive advantage: examining the relationship from a resource-based view. Strategic Change, 13(2), 83-93.
Waddington, P. A. J. (1999). Police (canteen) sub-culture: an appreciation. The British Journal of Criminology, 287-309.

Waldman, D. A., & Atwater, L. E. (1998). Power of 360 degree feedback. Routledge.

Waldman, D. A., Javidan, M., & Varella, P. (2004). Charismatic leadership at the strategic level: A new application of upper echelons theory. The Leadership Quarterly, 15(3), 355-380.
Walker, N. (2008). The pattern of transnational policing. In T. Newburn (Ed.), The context of policing (pp. 119-146). Willan Publishing.

Walker, S. (2001). Police accountability: The role of citizen oversight, 199-214. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Walker, S. (2008). The neglect of police unions: exploring one of the most important areas of American policing. Police Practice and Research: An International Journal, 9(2), 95-112.

Walker, S., & Archbold, C. (2013). The new world of police accountability. Sage Publications.

Wall, D. S. (2007). Policing cybercrimes: Situating the public police in networks of security within cyberspace. Police Practice and Research, 8(2), 183-205.

Walsh, W. F. (2001). Compstat: An analysis of an emerging police managerial paradigm. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 24(3), 347-362.

Walsh, W. F., & Vito, G. F. (2018). Police Leadership and Administration: A 21st-Century Strategic Approach: Routledge.

Wang, J. (2015). Learning Approaches for Leadership Development Programs: Globalization of Leadership Development. Internationale Wirtschaftspartner, 1, 79-93. doi:http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-658-06864-6_3.

WAPOL. (2016). WA Police Force Annual Report 2016. Retrieved August 25, 2017 from https://www.police.wa.gov.au/About-Us/Our-agency/Annual-report.

WAPOL. (2018a). WA Police Force Annual Report. Retrieved September 18, 2018 from https://www.police.wa.gov.au/About-Us/Our-Agency/Annual-report.

WAPOL. (2018b). WA Police Force Rank Insignias - Western Australia Police Force. Retrieved July 14, 2018 from https://www.police.wa.gov.au/About-Us/Our-History/WA-Police-Force-Rank-Insignias.

Wassenaar, C., & Pearce, C. (2017). Shared Leadership in The Nature of Leadership (J. D. Antonakis, D. Ed. 3rd edition ed.). California: Sage Publications.

Watkins, K. E., & Marsick, V. J. (1992). Towards a theory of informal and incidental learning in organizations. International journal of lifelong education, 11(4), 287-300.

Watson, D. (2018). Police chiefs in the UK: politicians, HR managers or cops? Book Review of Author: Roycroft Stratford, M., in Policing & Society, 28(2), 242 – 249.

Watson, W. E., Johnson, L., Kumar, K., & Critelli, J. (1998). Process gain and process loss: Comparing interpersonal processes and performance of culturally diverse and non-diverse teams across time. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 22(4), 409-430.

Wedlick, D. P. (2012). Leadership development training: its impact on middle managers in law enforcement. Leadership, 12, 1-2012.

Weiss, D. (2014). Four future challenges in policing for police executives. Review of Arts and Humanities, 3(3-4), 15-35.

Weiss, D., & Molinaro, V. (2006). Integrated leadership development. Industrial and Commercial Training, 38(1), 3-11.

Westmarland, L. (2005). Police ethics and integrity: breaking the blue code of silence. Policing and Society, 15(2), 145-165.

Wheatcroft, J. M., Alison, L. A., & McGrory, D. (2012). The Influence of trust on senior investigating officers' decision making in high-profile critical incidents. Police Quarterly, 15(4), 386-413.

Wheatcroft, J. M., Alison, L. A., & McGrory, D. (2012). The Influence of trust on senior investigating officers' decision making in high-profile critical incidents. Police Quarterly, 15(4), 386-413.

Whetstone, T. S. (2001). Copping out: Why police officers decline to participate in the sergeant's promotional process. American Journal of Criminal Justice, 25(2), 147.

White, M. D., & Fradella, H. F. (2016). Stop and frisk: The use and abuse of a controversial policing tactic: NYU Press.

White, V., & Robinson, S. (2014). Leading Change in Policing: Police Culture and the Psychological Contract. Police Journal: Theory, Practice and Principles, 87(4), 258-269.

Whittred, J. (2008). A qualitative exploration into the transformational leadership styles of senior police women. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Leicester.

Wikström, P.-O. H., & Sampson, R. J. (2006). The explanation of crime: context, mechanisms and development: Cambridge University Press.

Willis, J. J., & Mastrofski, S. D. (2017). Understanding the culture of craft: lessons from two police agencies. Journal of Crime and Justice, 40(1), 84-100.

Willis, J. J., & Mastrofski, S. D. (2018). Improving policing by integrating craft and science: What can patrol officers teach us about good police work? Policing and Society, 28(1), 27-44.

Wilson, M. S., & Van Velsor, E. (2011). The New Terrain of Leadership Development: An Indian Perspective. In S. Verma (Ed.), Towards the Next Orbit: A Corporate Odyssey (pp. 267-287). Los Angeles: Sage.

Wisberg, H. F., & Bowen, B. D. (1969). An Introduction to Survey Research and Data Analysis. San Francisco: Freeman.

Wood, D. S., Rosay, A. B., Postle, G., & TePas, K. (2011). Police presence, isolation, and sexual assault prosecution. Criminal Justice Policy Review, 22(3), 330-349.

Wood, J., Fleming, J., & Marks, M. (2008). Building the capacity of police change agents: The nexus policing project. Policing & Society, 18(1), 72-87.

Wood, J., R. (1997). Royal Commission into the New South Wales Police Service. Final Report Retrieved from https://www.australianpolice.com.au/wp-content/uploads/.../RCPS-Report-Volume-1.pdf.

Woody, R. H. (2005). The Police culture: research implications for psychological services. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 36(5), 525.

Wordes, M. (2000). Creating a structured decision-making model for police intervention in intimate partner violence: National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Workman-Stark A.L. (2017) Understanding Police Culture. In: Inclusive Policing from the Inside Out. Advanced Sciences and Technologies for Security Applications. Springer, Cham.

Wortley, R. (2011). Psychological criminology: an integrative approach: Taylor & Francis.

Wright, A., Alison, L., & Crego, J. (2008). The current state of police leadership research. Policing critical incidents: leadership and critical incident management, in Policing Critical Incidents, Alison, J., & Crego, J., pp. 86 – 112. .

Wuestewald, T. (2016). Adult learning in executive development programs. Adult Learning, 27(2), 68-75.

Wuestewald, T., & Steinheider, B. (2006). The changing face of police leadership. Police Chief, 73(4), 26.

Yang, L.-R., Yen, H.-F., & Chiang, Y.-F. (2012). A framework for assessing impacts of leadership competency on police project performance: Mediating role of job satisfaction and moderating role of project type. Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management, 35(3), 528-550.

Yin, R. (1994). Case Study Research: Design and Methods SAGE Publications Inc. In: USA.

Youngs, A. (2010). Leadership development creates chiefs of police. In J.A. Schafer & S. Boyd (Eds.), Advancing Police Leadership: Considerations, Lessons Learned, and Preferable Futures. Volume 6 of the Proceedings of the Futures Working Group.

Yousef, D. A. (2017). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction and attitudes toward organizational change: A study in the local government. International Journal of Public Administration, 40(1), 77-88.

Yuille, J. C. (2012). Police selection and training: the role of psychology (Vol. 30). Springer Science & Business Media.

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. Journal of Management, 15(2), 251-289.

Yukl, G. (2010). Leadership in Organizations. University at Albany, State University of New York.

Zaccaro, S. J., & Banks, D. (2004). Leader visioning and adaptability: Bridging the gap between research and practice on developing the ability to manage change. Human resource management, 43(4), 367-380.

Zaccaro, S. J., & Banks, D. (2004). Leader visioning and adaptability: Bridging the gap between research and practice on developing the ability to manage change. Human resource management, 43(4), 367-380.

Zaccaro, S. J., Wood, G., & Herman, J. (2006). Developing the adaptive and global leader: HRM strategies within a career-long perspective. The human resources revolution: Why putting people first matters, 277-302.

Zalman, M. (2014). The detective and wrongful conviction. Wrongful conviction and criminal justice reform: Making justice, 147-163.

Zoller, K., Normore, A., & McDonald, S. (2014). A new way of leading for the law enforcement supervisor: An adaptive leadership case study. The Police Chief, 81, 44-47.

# Appendixes

## Appendix 1: Documentation involving interviews with jurisdictional experts (Study 1)

---

Plain Language Statement for participants in research project:

PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS, AS FINANCIAL MEMBERS OF POLICE UNIONS: WHAT PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPENT IS PROVIDED TO SENIOR POLICE OFFICERS BY THEIR RESPECTIVE POLICE ORGANISATION?

### Introduction

This project aims to examine professional and leadership development in the senior ranks of police in Australia. Examining police leadership is unique as police themselves are required to deal with many diverse and distinctive challenges and experiences throughout their working lives.

The purpose of this study is also to obtain information from content matter experts within each police jurisdiction involving professional and leadership development. Such information would include identifying relevant education, training, policies, procedures and practices within in each respective police organisation which support the development of senior police leadership. The project also aims to establish base level research across Australian police organisations regarding professional and leadership development provided to senior police officers. We are seeking your honest feedback.

### Your Involvement

Should you agree to be involved, we ask that you participate in an audio-recorded interview. You will be asked a short series of questions relating to your knowledge of how your jurisdiction/organisation supports the professional and leadership development of senior police officers. This interview will be scheduled at a convenient time and location for you and be conducted by Central Queensland University researchers. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw your statement of consent, participation and previously supplied data at any time without consequences until the data is processed. You are also free to withdraw from the interview at any time during the process. It is anticipated the interview will take around 45 minutes.

### Confidentiality Procedures

Confidentiality is important to us. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest extent possible, subject to legal requirements. Your name and contact details will not be retained, and transcripts generated from a digital recording of this interview will be linked to a pseudonym assigned to you. No material that may possibly identify you will be included in any publications or outputs from the project. Audio and written data will be kept according to the requirements set out by the NH&MRC Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research; the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). Audio data will be deleted after five years.

## Feedback and Findings

A summary report will be available to the participating organisations and individuals upon request at completion of the research project. You can indicate your interest in receiving general findings by marking your interest on the consent form.

## Further Information

This study has been approved by the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee. Central Queensland University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the research project you should contact the

Central Queensland University Human Ethics Committee

c/o Research Office of Research Services

Bldg 32 Level 2, CQUniversity Australia
Bruce Highway, North Rockhampton QLD 4701, Australia

Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. It is unlikely that you will experience any distress as a result of completing this survey. However, in the unlikely event that you are concerned about what has been asked we advise you follow normal protocols for accessing professional support through your workplace, or contact the Beyond Blue information line (1300 224 636), Lifeline (131 114) or the Mental Health Advice Line (Ph. 1300 280 737) for expert advice, information and support to deal with any challenges and stress.

## How do I agree to participate?

If you would like to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood this information by signing the accompanying consent form.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Yours sincerely

Shane Doyle
PhD Student,

Central Queensland University,
160 Ann Street, Brisbane 4000.

Dr Olav Muurlink
Senior Lecturer,
Central Queensland University,
160 Ann Street, Brisbane 4000.

Dr Linda Colley
Lecturer,
Central Queensland University,
160 Ann Street, Brisbane 4000.

Shellee Wakefield,
Researcher,
Central Queensland University,
160 Ann Street, Brisbane 4000.

## Core interview questions with jurisdictional experts

Q.1. Can you briefly outline your current position/role together with your experience involving leadership development of senior police officers within your organisation?

Q.2. Can you briefly describe how senior police officers (i.e. commissioned officers) are currently developed as leaders within your organisation?

Q.3 (i) Outline what policies/procedures/strategies/models exist to support leadership development of senior police within your organisation?

Q.3 (ii) Outline what leadership development training/ practices/methods/approaches exist to support senior police officers within your organisation?

Q.4 (i) How is leadership development of senior police reviewed or evaluated within your organisation?

Q.4 (ii) Has there been a current or recent review of leadership development undertaken for senior officers within your organisation?

Q.5 (i) Based on your experience, to what extent do current leadership development policies/procedures/strategies/models for senior police meet individual and organisational needs?

Q.5(ii) Based on your experience to what extent do current leadership development training/practices/approaches/methods for senior police meet individual and organisational needs?

Q.6 (i) In your experience, what do you see as strengths in terms of the way your organisation currently develops its senior police, as leaders?

Q.6 (ii) In your experience, what (if anything) could be improved, regarding your organisations'

leadership development for senior police?

Q. 7 What other comments, if any, do you wish to make?

Thank you!

PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOMENT OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS WITHIN AUSTRALIA (AS FINANCIAL MEMBERS OF THEIR POLICE UNION)

"AS FINANCIAL UNION MEMBERS HOW ARE SENIOR POLICE OFFICERS DEVELOPED AS LEADERS WITHIN THEIR RESPECTIVE POLICY ORGANISATION"

## CONSENT FORM

I consent to participation in this research project and agree that:

1. An Information Sheet has been provided to me that I have read and understood;
2. I have had any questions I had about the project answered to my satisfaction by the Information Sheet and any further verbal explanation provided;
3. I understand that my participation or non-participation in the research project will not affect my academic standing or my employment.
4. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time without penalty;
5. I understand the research findings will be included in the researcher's publication(s) on the project and this may include conferences and articles written for journals and other methods of dissemination stated in the Information Sheet;
6. I understand that to preserve anonymity and maintain confidentiality of participants that fictitious names may be used any publication(s), unless I have expressly granted permission as outlined below;
7. I am aware that the key results can be made available to me upon request.
8. I agree that I am providing informed consent to participate in this project.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Name (please print): _____

Where relevant to the research project, please check the box below:

| | YES | NO |
|---|---|---|
| | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| I wish to have CU University researchers forward me a Plain English statement of key results posted to me at the address I provide below. | | |

Postal Address: _____

E-mail Address: _____

## Appendix 2: Documentation involving survey perceptions of QPS commissioned officers (Study 2)

# 2015 QUEENSLAND POLICE COMMISSIONED OFFICERS' UNION OF EMPLOYEES (QPCOUE) WORKPLACE SURVEY

### Welcome to the 2015 QPCOUE Workplace Survey

Message from the QPCOUE President

### Introduction

The QPCOUE Executive in partnership with Central Queensland University (CQU) are conducting a survey with QPCOUE members. As a Union member, it seeks your opinions on a range of issues which affect you in the workplace. The survey contains scaled and open-ended questions, allowing you to share your opinions freely and confidentially.

### Purpose of survey

The purpose of this survey is two-fold. First, your opinions will assist in preparing for future enterprise bargaining (EB) negotiations. Second, data derived from the survey may inform research in to the professional and leadership development of senior officers in the QPS.

### Your involvement

Should you agree to be involved, you will be asked to complete a short survey. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and confidential.

### Confidentiality procedures

Your responses will be kept confidential. You are not required to identify yourself, therefore, your anonymity is assured. However, you are requested to provide demographic type information regarding your age, rank, region, years' service, etc. Be assured, the information you choose to provide will be treated confidentially and you will remain anonymous. The information will not be linked or traceable to you as an individual.

### Do I have to participate?

No, participation in this survey is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw at any time. Just close the survey form to exit at any time.

Who will be invited to participate in this survey?

This survey will be sent to all members of the QPCOUE.

How long will the survey take to complete?

The survey should only take about 20 minutes to complete, depending on the amount of information you wish to provide.

Survey closing date?

The survey will close at 5pm on Thursday 24th December 2015.

A note on privacy

The survey is anonymous. The record of your survey responses does not contain any identifying details that can be linked to you. No record of your IP address will be obtained as a result of logging on to the survey link. Only the researchers will have access to the survey data.

Regards

Superintendent Brian Wilkins

QPCOUE President

# ADDITIONAL INFORMATION SHEET

## Feedback and findings

A summary report will be available to the QPCOUE Executive and individuals upon request at the completion of the research project.

Please email either shane.t.doyle@cqumail.com or o.muurlink@cqu.edu.au to receive a copy.

## Further information

This study has been approved by the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee. Central Queensland University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the research project you should contact the

Central Queensland University Human Ethics Committee

c/o Research Office of Research Services

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bldg | 32 | Level | 2 |
| CQUniversity | | | Australia |
| Bruce | | | Highway |
| North | Rockhampton | QLD | 4701 |
| Australia | | | |

Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. It is unlikely that you will experience any distress as a result of completing this survey, however in the unlikely event that you are concerned about what has been asked we advise that you follow normal protocols for accessing professional support through your workplace, or contact the Beyond Blue information line (1300 224 636), Lifeline (131 114) or the Mental Health Advice Line (1300 280 737) for expert advice, information and support to deal with any challenges and stress.

## Consent

By ticking the box below I indicate that I agree to participate in this study, have read and understood this preamble, and give my informed consent to be involved in this study.

Part 1: Demographic questions

1. What is your current rank? (Inspector/Superintendent/Chief Superintendent).

2. What is your gender? (Male/Female).

3. What is your Region/Command? (ie. insert locations). Northern Region; Central Region; Brisbane Region; Southern Region; South Eastern Region; Public Safety Business Agency (PSBA);

   Operational Capability Command (OCC); Operations Support Command (OSC);

   State Crime Command (SCC); Intelligence, Counter-Terrorism and Major Events Command (ICMC);

   Ethical Standards Command (ESC); Legal Division (LD); Road Policing Command (RPC);

   Community Contact Command (CCC); Crime and Corruption Commission; Other (Commonwealth Games Group; COP and Dep COP offices).

4. What is your length of service? (15-19 yrs, 20-24 yrs, 25-29yrs, 30-34, 35-39 yrs, 40 yrs and above).

5. What is your age? (35 – 39 yrs; 40-44 yrs; 45-49 yrs; 50-54 yrs; 55 yrs and over).

6. Which best describes is your primary role/function? (i) Corporate (ii) Operational (iii) Legal (iv) Education and Training (v) Specialist/Other

Educational Qualifications

7. What is the highest educational qualification you have achieved?

   (i) High School Certificate (ii) TAFE Diploma (iii) Bachelor Degree (iv) Post-graduate Degree

Part 2: Rank structure and pay levels

The following are a series of statements about rank structure, pay levels, working conditions, award provisions, promotion and selection processes. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.

8. The rank structure for commissioned officers should be flattened by eliminating the rank of chief superintendent.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

9. I support the Union negotiating the exchange of some inspector positions for superintendent positions

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

Part 3: Working Conditions

10. In the last three years, there has been at least one occasion in my current position where I have used police powers to perform my duties?

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

11. The Service-wide organisational restructure introduced in 2013 has had a positive impact upon the duties and responsibilities I perform.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

12. An allowance for commissioned officers to compensate officers for being 'on-call' is necessary.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

13. Full private use of Service vehicles on a part-financial contribution basis should be made available to commissioned officers.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

14. There are adequate pay points for my rank.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

15. There are adequate pay points for the next rank immediately above me.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

16. In recognition for their length of service, commissioned officers should receive similar acknowledgement to Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs), where officers are entitled to a rank insignia, after 10 years on the rank.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

17. Commissioned officers should receive a similar allowance paid to commissioned officers in the Queensland Fire and Rescue Service (QF&RS), when working in extreme and high risk events, during declared disasters.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

18. The QPS policy on equitable relieving opportunities for higher duties positions is being applied fairly.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

19. Commissioned officers performing rotational shift work should be paid an allowance.

Yes/No

20. Please choose a recent 'typical' duty month and, by confirming hours from your diary, indicate the number of hours of duty you performed beyond standard shifts?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 hours or less | 6 – 10 hours | 11 – 15 hours | 16 – 20 hours | 21 – 25 hours | 26 – 30 hours | 31 hours or more |

Part 4: Award Provisions

21. I would generally support the introduction of contracts for commissioned officers?

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

22. I have been satisfied with how managed time arrangements have worked since the removal of 'programmed days off' (PDOs) in the 2013 EB agreement.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

23. I have experienced resistance from one or more superior officers when accessing managed time off.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

24. Given my experience with accessing managed time off since PDOs were removed in the 2013 EB agreement, I believe the removal of PDOs was the right decision.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

25. Commissioned officer positions should be limited to a maximum tenure.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

26. I am satisfied the current process of filling vacancies for commissioned officers is being conducted in timely and efficient manner.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

27. I prefer commissioned officer positions are advertised on a generic basis, as opposed to filling specific vacancies as they arise.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

28. The QPCOUE may be required to present a 'log of claims' as part of the EB process. What key industrial issues do you believe should be included in any 'log of claims'?

(Open question)

Part 5: Promotion and Selection process

29. I am satisfied with the current promotion and selection process for commissioned officers.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

30. The promotion and selection process for officers aspiring to my rank needs reviewing.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

31. The promotion and selection process for officers aspiring to the rank, immediately above me, needs reviewing.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

32. What is your preferred method for promotion as a commissioned officer? Please select one or more of the following, in order of importance.

(i) Minimum time on rank; (i.e. 3 years);

(ii) By application;

(iii) By interview;

(iv) By assessment centre;

(v) By undertaking a qualifying course.

33. The current external assessment centre process which applies to commissioned officers is appropriate.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

34. Assessment centres for commissioned officers should be used for the following:

(i) Developmental purposes only

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

(ii) Selecting officers for promotion purposes only

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

(iii) Selecting officers for promotion AND for developmental purposes

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

Part 6 Workplace Challenges

35. The following areas are often named as potential sources of support in handling the challenges of a job. Please indicate on the following scale the degree to which each of these is important to you:

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Extremely unsupportive | Not very supportive | Neutral | Fairly supportive | Extremely supportive |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (i) | Support from my Union: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (ii) | Support from my superiors: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (iii) | Support from my peers: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (iv) | Organisational (QPS) support: | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| (v) | Support from family and friends | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

36. To what extent do you find your work challenging?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No challenge at all | Very little challenge | Neutral | Somewhat challenging | Extremely challenging |

37. To what extent do you feel you have control over your work load and its associated challenges?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| No control at all | Limited degree of control | Neutral | Moderate degree of control | Very high degree of control |

38. What other comments (if any) would you like to provide regarding emotional and mental health support for police officers?

*(Free text field)*

Part 7: Professional development (Professional Development (PD) Allowance)

The 2010 Enterprise Bargaining (EB) agreement included a professional development (PD) allowance for commissioned officers. In that agreement, the maximum amount to be reimbursed was struck at $5000 per annum, for officers undertaking development in their own time. The following questions (40 to 43) relate to this PD allowance.

39. Have you used, or intend to use the Commissioned Officers PD allowance?

Yes/No

If no, please answer the following question 41. If yes, then please proceed straight to question 42.

40. I have not accessed the PD allowance for the following reason(s). (Please select one or more of the following, in order of their relevance).

(i) My job is too busy;
(ii) Professional development hasn't been one of my priorities;
(iii) There hasn't been any suitable professional development for me to attend;
(iv) I'm reluctant to use my own leave to undertake professional development;
(v) Other (please specify)

41. Commissioned officers should be allowed to access the PD allowance in departmental time.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

42. The $5000 PD allowance is insufficient and should be increased.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

Part 8: Leadership development

The final part of this survey involves your development as a leader and support you receive in your job. Please reflect for a moment on aspects of your job that have either 'helped or hindered' your development as a leader in the QPS.

43. To what extent have the following development methods best prepared you as a leader in the QPS?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Not prepared at all | | | Neutral | | | Very much prepared |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (i) Mentoring | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (ii) Executive coaching | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iii) Formal feedback (e.g. 360 degree feedback) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iv) Action learning (i.e. undertake workplace problems, as a reflective learning exercise, aimed at continuous organisational improvement) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (v) Challenging job assignments (e.g. job rotation, relieving in 'higher duties', project roles, etc.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (vi) Networking | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (vii) QPS structured development training (e.g. courses/workshops/conferences) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (viii) Self-directed structured development training (e.g. courses/workshops/conferences) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (viii) Tertiary based educational courses and/or programs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (ix) Assessment centres | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

44. What other comments (if any) do you wish to make in relation to leadership development methods used for commissioned officers in the QPS. In answering, you might consider the list immediately above, and name (if appropriate), any other methods which would assist in developing you as a leader in the QPS.

*(Free text field)*

45. To what extent do you consider the following, a strength or weakness, with regard to your development as a leader in the QPS?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Significant weakness | | | Neutral | | | Significant strength |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| (i) My mentor | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (ii) My immediate supervisor | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iii) My over-viewing officer (in terms of my 'Performance Development Agreement' – PDA) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iv) The Queensland Police Commissioned Officers Union of Employees (QPCOUE) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (v) The 'Leadership Development Unit' (LDU) (Queensland Police Academy) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

46. With respect to <u>your current role</u>, to what extent do you consider the following, a strength or weakness, in terms of your development as a leader in the QPS?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Significant weakness | | | Neutral | | | Significant strength |

(i) Amount of authority (i.e. power to

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| delegate tasks and responsibilities) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (ii) Amount of autonomy (i.e. degree of flexibility, freedom or discretion) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iii) Responsibilities of the role | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (iv) Time available (to undertake development) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (v) Number of staff under my control | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| (vi) Resources (including finances) at my disposal | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

47. My own personal limitations constrain or impede my development as a leader.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

48. I am regularly 'overlooked' or 'passed-over' for leadership development opportunities.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

49. The 'Service' supports and encourages leadership development for commissioned officers.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

50. The 'Service' places more emphasis on developing managers as opposed to developing leaders.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

51. Within departmental time, the 'Service' provides me with sufficient opportunities to develop my leadership.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

52. Developing my leadership is not one of my priorities.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither Agree nor Disagree | Agree | Strongly Agree |

53. What other comments (if any) do you wish to make regarding your development as a leader in the QPS (please specify). In answering, you might consider things that helped or hindered your development as a leader in the QPS.

*(Free text field)*

Final Question

54. What other comments (if any) do you wish to provide?

*(Free text field)*

Thank You – The end

## Appendix 3: Documentation involving interviews with Commissioned Officers (Study 3)

Plain Language Statement for participants in research project:

PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOMENT OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS (AS FINANCIAL MEMBERS OF THE QEENSLAND POLICE COMMISSIONED OFFICERS UNION OF EMPLOYEES) (QPCOUE):

"WHAT ARE THE PERCEPTIONS OF SENIOR QPCOUE MEMBERS REGARDING THEIR PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT WITHIN SENIOR RANKS OF POLICE WITHIN THE QUEENSLAND POLICE SERVICE (QPS)"?

### Introduction

This research aims to examine leadership development in the senior ranks of police in Australia. Examining police perceptions is unique as police themselves face many challenges and experiences through their working lives. The purpose of this study is also to obtain members' views of their roles and preferences for future Queensland Police Service (QPS) policy which impacts on commissioned officers, particularly in relation to their leadership development and related areas of interest or concern for future enterprise bargaining negotiations. We are seeking your honest feedback.

### Your Involvement

Should you agree to be involved, we ask that you participate in an audio-recorded interview. You will be asked a short series of questions relating to your experiences of leadership development. This interview will be scheduled at a convenient time and location for you and be conducted by Central Queensland University researchers. Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are free to withdraw your statement of consent, participation and previously supplied data at any time without consequences until the data is processed. You are also free to withdraw from the interview at any time during the process. It is anticipated the interview will take about 30 – 40 minutes.

### Confidentiality Procedures

Confidentiality is important to us. We intend to protect your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses to the fullest extent possible, subject to legal requirements. Your name and contact details will not be retained, and transcripts generated from a digital recording of this interview will be linked to a pseudonym assigned to you. No material that may possibly identify you will be included in any publications or outputs from the project. Audio and written data will be kept according to the requirements set out by the NH&MRC Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research; the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). Audio data will be deleted after five years.

## Feedback and Findings

A summary of the findings of this survey will be provided to Queensland Police Commissioned Officers' Union of Employees (QPCOUE). If you wish to obtain a copy of these findings then your request will be forwarded on to the QPCOUE. The results of this research will be published in academic journals. Please contact the researcher if you wish to be notified when these publications are available.

## Further Information

This study has been approved by the Central Queensland University Human Research Ethics Committee. Central Queensland University conducts research in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research. If you have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the research project you should contact the

Central Queensland University Human Ethics Committee
c/o Research Office of Research Services
Bldg 32 Level 2
CQUniversity Australia
Bruce Highway
North Rockhampton QLD 4701
Australia

Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated, and you will be informed of the outcome. It is unlikely that you will experience any distress as a result of completing this survey. However, in the unlikely event that you are concerned about what has been asked we advise you follow normal protocols for accessing professional support through your workplace, or contact the Beyond Blue information line (1300 224 636), Lifeline (131 114) or the Mental Health Advice Line (Ph. 1300 280 737) for expert advice, information and support to deal with any challenges and stress.

## How do I agree to participate?

If you would like to participate, please indicate that you have read and understood this information by signing the accompanying consent form.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Yours sincerely

Shane Doyle
PhD Candidate,
Central Queensland University,
160 Ann Street, Brisbane 4000.

## Core interview questions for Commissioned Officers

### Background and introduction

Q.1 Are you still ok to be interviewed?

Q.2. Is it still ok to be recorded?

Q.3. Tell us a little bit about yourself?

(i) When did you join the police service?

(ii) Main roles: Detective/Uniform – Specialist/support

(iii) What areas: City? Regional? Remote?

(iv) What is your highest educational qualification you have received?

(v) When did you first get promoted to a commissioned officer?

(vi) How many people do you lead in your current role?

(vii) What is the most number of people you have led?

Q.3 When I mention the term 'leadership development' what immediately springs to mind?

Q.4 (i) Now reflect on your development as a leader in the QPS when you changed as a leader. Tell me about this and what brought about this change? Feel free to provide examples where appropriate.

Q.4 (ii) When you changed as a leader - what did you learn from it, for better or for worse?

Q.5 (i) Now reflect on your policing career when your development as a leader was enhanced or taken forward? Tell me about that – feel free to provide any examples, where appropriate?

Q.5 (ii) Now reflect on your policing career when your development as a leader was impeded or 'set-back'. Tell me about that – feel free to provide any examples, where appropriate?

Q.6. (i) Now think back over your policing career when you as a leader were really 'stretched' or taken 'out of your comfort zone'? Tell me about that and provide examples where appropriate?

(Prompts: Describe the extent to which this challenged you and how it affected the way you lead?)

Q.6. (ii) When you were stretched or taken out of your comfort zone, describe what support you received and whether this support was adequate? Provide examples if appropriate? (prompts: From whom? (i.e. The service/senior leadership/peers?)

Q.6 (iii) Do you think the support you received was typical of that provided in the QPS? (Prompt: Why/why note?).

Q.6. (iv) When you were stretched or taken out of your comfort zone - describe what feedback you received and whether this feedback was adequate? (Prompts: From whom - i.e. The service/senior leadership/peers?)

Q. 6 (v) Do you think such feedback is typical within the QPS?).

Q.7 How would you compare the development you received as a leader when you were a non-commissioned officers, compared to the development you've received, or available to you, as a commissioned officers? (Prompt: similar, different, how?).

Q.8. (i) In your opinion what is the best way to develop commissioned officers, as leaders, in the QPS?

Q8 (ii) Is this approach similar or different to the way the QPS currently develops it's commissioned officers as leaders?

## Concluding question

Q. 9

What else, if anything, do you wish to say about your development as a leader in the QPS?

PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOMENT OF COMMISSIONED OFFICERS (AS FINANCIAL MEMBERS OF THE QEENSLAND POLICE COMMISSIONED OFFICERS UNION OF EMPLOYEES) (QPCOUE):

"WHAT ARE THE PERCEPTIONS OF SENIOR QPCOUE MEMBERS REGARDING THEIR PROFESSIONAL AND LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT WITHIN SENIOR RANKS OF POLICE WITHIN THE QUEENSLAND POLICE SERVICE (QPS)"?

CONSENT FORM

I consent to participation in this research project and agree that:

1. An Information Sheet has been provided to me that I have read and understood;
2. I have had any questions I had about the project answered to my satisfaction by the Information Sheet and any further verbal explanation provided;
3. I understand that my participation or non-participation in the research project will not affect my academic standing or my employment.
4. I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time without penalty;
5. I understand the research findings will be included in the researcher's publication(s) on the project and this may include conferences and articles written for journals and other methods of dissemination stated in the Information Sheet;
6. I understand that to preserve anonymity and maintain confidentiality of participants that fictitious names may be used any publication(s), unless I have expressly granted permission as outlined below;
7. I am aware that the key results can be made available to me upon request.
8. I agree that I am providing informed consent to participate in this project.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Name (please print): _____

Where relevant to the research project, please check the box below:

| | YES | NO |
|---|---|---|
| 1. I wish to have the QPCOUE forward me a Plain English statement of key results posted to me at the address I provide below. | | |

Postal Address: _____

E-mail Address: _____